THE

AMERICAN GEOGRAPHY;

OR, A

VIEW OF THE PRESENT SITUATION

OF THE

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

CONTAINING

Aſtronomical Geography; Geographical Definitions, Diſcovery, and General Deſcription

Of their Boundaries; Mountains; Lakes; Bays, and Rivers; Natural Hiſtory; Productions; Population; Government; Agriculture; Commerce; Manufactures; and Hiſtory.——A conciſe account of the War, and of the important Events which have ſucceeded:

A PARTICULAR DESCRIPTION OF

KENTUCKY, THE WESTERN TERRITORY, THE TERRITORY SOUTH OF OHIO, AND VERMONT:

Of their Extent; Civil Diviſions; Chief Towns; Climates; Soils; Trade; Character; Conſtitutions; Courts of Juſtice; Colleges; Academies; Religion; Iſlands; Indians; Literary and Humane Societies; Springs; Curioſities; Hiſtories; Mines; Minerals; Military Strength, &c.

WITH A VIEW OF THE

BRITISH, SPANISH, FRENCH, PORTUGUESE, AND DUTCH DOMINIONS, ON THE CONTINENT, AND IN THE WEST INDIES.

By JEDIDIAH MORSE, A. M.

A NEW EDITION,

REVISED, CORRECTED, AND GREATLY ENLARGED, BY THE AUTHOR,

AND ILLUSTRATED WITH MAPS.

LONDON:

PRINTED FOR JOHN STOCKDALE, PICCADILLY.

1794.

ADVERTISEMENT.

THE preſent Edition of the following Work is brought down by regular communications from the Author to the end of March laſt. It was the Publiſher's intention to have given a complete Set of Maps, but finding that Mr. Arrowſmith had in great forwardneſs two large ones of America, compiled from authentic materials that he had recently received, and knowing that preference would be given to him, being univerſally and deſervedly allowed to be the firſt Geographer now living; the Publiſher has preſented him with the whole of the documents he had in his poſſeſſion, and declined proceeding with the plates that he had already begun—which of courſe, had they been finiſhed, muſt have enhanced the price of the preſent volume. Moſt of the Readers will probably be ſatisfied with the Maps now given. Such as wiſh for further information will be highly gratified by the ſight of Mr. Arrowſmith's Maps, which he underſtands will ſoon be publiſhed under the following titles:

1ſt. A Map of the United States of North America on a large Scale, ſhewing the Progreſs of Geography to the preſent Time.

2d. A Map of that Part of North America to the North of the 40th degree of Latitude, exhibiting all the Diſcoveries made in the Interior Part of that Continent.

Piccadilly, 22d April, 1794.

PREFACE.

THIS Book may with more propriety be considered as a New Work, than a new Edition, being so much altered and enlarged.

The Science of Geography, like many other Sciences, is not stationary. So rapid are the improvements made in it by travellers and navigators—so fast do alterations and revolutions succeed each other, that it is not an easy matter for a Geographer to keep pace with them. What is this year a geographical truth, may the next year be a geographical error, and require correction. The astonishing progress of things in the United States since the year 1789, will readily suggest to the reader the reason of the many alterations and additions in this new Edition of the American Geography, as contained in the following work.

The Author does not forget here very gratefully to acknowledge his great obligations to several of the gentlemen who sustain some of the highest offices in the general government, and to many gentlemen of respectability in the several States, for their very liberal and valuable communications, which have contributed not a little to render the work accurate and useful. He hopes that such use has been made of their friendly assistance, as will induce them to continue it, and to afford in future every information, and every hint, which may tend to render the work more perfect.

CHARLESTOWN, *(Massachusetts)* 1793.

PREFACE

TO THE FIRST EDITION.

SO imperfect are all the accounts of America hitherto publiſhed, even by thoſe who once excluſively poſſeſſed the beſt means of information, that from them very little knowledge of this country can be acquired. Europeans have been the ſole writers of American Geography, and have too often ſuffered fancy to ſupply the place of facts, and thus have led their readers into errors, while they profeſſed to aim at removing their ignorance. But ſince the United States have become an independent nation, and have riſen into Empire, it would be reproachful for them to ſuffer this ignorance to continue; and the reſt of the world have a right now to expect authentic information. To furniſh this has been the deſign of the author of the following work; but he does not pretend that this deſign is completed, nor will the judicious and candid expect it, when they conſider that he has trodden, comparatively, an unbeaten path; that he has had to collect a vaſt variety of materials; that theſe have been widely ſcattered: and that he could derive but little aſſiſtance from books already publiſhed. Four years have been employed in this work, during which period the author has viſited the ſeveral States in the Union, and maintained an extenſive correſpondence with men of ſcience; and in every inſtance has endeavoured to derive his information from the moſt authentic ſources; he has alſo ſubmitted his manuſcripts to the inſpection of Gentlemen in the States which they particularly deſcribed, for their correction. It is poſſible, notwithſtanding, and indeed very probable, that inaccuracies may have crept in; but he hopes there are none of any great importance, and that ſuch as may be obſerved, will not be made the ſubject of ſevere cenſure, but aſcribed to ſome pardonable cauſe. He flatters himſelf, however, that the work now offered to the public, will be found to be

as accurate, complete, and impartial, as the preſent ſtate of American Geography, and Hiſtory, could furniſh. After all, like the nation of which it treats, it is but an infant, and, as ſuch, ſolicits the foſtering care of the country it deſcribes; it will grow and improve as the nation advances towards maturity, and the author will gratefully acknowledge every friendly communication which will tend to make it perfect.

In the proſecution of the work, he has aimed at utility rather than originality; and, of courſe, when he has met with publications ſuited to his purpoſe, he has made a free uſe of them; and he thinks it proper here to obſerve, that, to avoid unneceſſary trouble, he has frequently uſed the words as well as the ideas of the writers, although the reader has not been particularly apprized of it.

For the author diſtinctly to acknowledge the obligations he is under to many citizens of theſe States, as well as to ſome foreigners of diſtinction, among us, would ſwell this preface to an improper length: he cannot forbear, however, to expreſs his peculiar obligation to EBENEZER HAZARD, Eſq. Poſtmaſter-General of the United States, for permiſſion of free acceſs to his very large and valuable Collection of papers, from which he has derived much of his hiſtorical information. This collection has been made with unwearied care and minute exactneſs; and the papers, which are of unqueſtionable authenticity, are the beſt and moſt complete *depoſitum* of facts relating to the hiſtory of America, from its firſt ſettlement, that is to be found in the United States. The Author's acknowledgements are likewiſe eſpecially due to Captain THOMAS HUTCHINS, Geographer General of the United States, for his particular friendſhip and aſſiſtance.

Every citizen of the United States ought to be thoroughly acquainted with the Geography of his own country, and to have ſome idea, at leaſt, of the other parts of the world; but as many of them cannot afford time and expenſe neceſſary to acquire a complete knowledge of the ſeveral parts of the Globe, this book offers them ſuch information as their ſituation in life may require; and while it is calculated early to impreſs the minds of American Youth with an idea of the ſuperior importance of their own country, as well as to attach them to its intereſts, it furniſhes a ſimplified account of other countries, calculated for their juvenile capacities, and to ſerve as an introduction to their future improvement in Geography.

CHARLESTOWN, (Maſſachuſetts) 1789.

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INTRODUCTION.

Of ASTRONOMY, *as connected with, and Introductory to, the* SCIENCE *of* GEOGRAPHY.

THE earth is now univerſally conſidered as a Planet, and, in company with ſix other bodies, of a ſimilar nature, revolves round the Sun as its center. Some acquaintance with the motions, times, diſtances, and magnitudes of theſe heavenly bodies is neceſſary in order to a complete knowledge of Geography. The ſcience which treats of the planets and other heavenly bodies, is called *Aſtronomy*. Hence the propriety of introducing this work with a ſhort account of that ſcience.

Aſtronomy was firſt attended to by the ſhepherds, on the beautiful plains of Egypt and Babylon. Their employment led them to contemplate the ſtars. While their flocks, in the ſilence of the evening, were enjoying ſweet repoſe, the ſpangled ſky naturally invited the attention of the ſhepherds. The obſervation of the heavenly bodies afforded them amuſement, and at the ſame time aſſiſted them in travelling in the night. A ſtar guided the ſhepherds to the manger where our bleſſed Saviour was born. By the aid of a lively imagination, they diſtributed the ſtars into a number of conſtellations or companies, to which they gave the name of the animals which they repreſented.

The Sun, the moſt glorious of the heavenly luminaries, is the fountain of heat and light to the planets which revolve round it. The paths which the planets deſcribe in their revolutions are called their orbits. The number of planets in the Solar Syſtem is ſeven; whoſe names, according to their nearneſs to the ſun, are Mercury, Venus, the Earth, Mars, Jupiter, Saturn, and the new planet Herſchel. The two firſt of theſe, becauſe they move within the orbit of the earth, are called *inferior*, or rather *interior* planets—the four laſt, becauſe they move without the earth's orbit, are called *ſuperior*, or more properly *exterior* planets.

To expreſs another diſtinction, theſe ſeven planets are called *primary* planets, in reference to fourteen other bodies, which are called *ſecondary planets*, *moons*, or *ſatellites*, which revolve round their reſpective primaries from weſt to eaſt, and at the ſame time move with them round the Sun. The earth has one ſatellite or moon, which performs its revolution in 29d. 12h. 44m. at the diſtance of about 60 ſemidiameters of the earth, or 239,100 miles, and is carried with the earth round the ſun once in a year. Jupiter has four moons; Saturn has ſeven,* and is alſo encompaſſed with a broad ring. The diameter of the ring is, to the diameter of Saturn, as 9 to 4; and the ſpace between the body of Saturn and the ring is equal to the breadth of the ring.

* The celebrated Dr. Herſchel has lately diſcovered two other Satellites belonging to Saturn, ſo that his whole number, before ſuppoſed to be only *five*, is *ſeven*. The *ſeventh* is neareſt to the planet, and the *ſixth* next. The ſyderial revolution of the former he ſuppoſes to be completed in about twenty-two hours and an half, that of the latter in about one day and nine hours.

Herſchel* has two moons, one of which revolves in about nine, the other in about thirteen and an half days.

Of the ſeveral ASTRONOMICAL SYSTEMS *of the* WORLD.

BY the word ſyſtem is meant an hypotheſis or ſuppoſition of a certain order and arrangement of the ſeveral parts of the univerſe, by which the aſtronomers explain all the phenomena or appearance of the heavenly bodies, their motions, changes, &c. The moſt famous ſyſtems, or hypotheſes, are the Ptolemaic, the Tychonic, or Brahean, and the Pythagorean, or Copernican Syſtem.

The PTOLEMAIC SYSTEM.

This ſyſtem, ſo called from Claudius Ptolemeus, a celebrated aſtronomer of Peluſium, in Egypt, who adopted and defended the prevailing ſyſtem of that age, ſuppoſes the earth immoveably fixed in the center of the univerſe; and that the moon, the planets, and the ſtars, all move round it from eaſt to weſt, once in twenty-four hours, in the following order: the Moon, Mercury, Venus, the Sun, Mars, Jupiter, Saturn, and the fixed ſtars. Theſe were all ſuppoſed to be fixed in ſeparate cryſtalline ſpheres, and to be included in another, called the *Primum Mobile*, which gives motion to all the reſt.

This ſyſtem owed its origin to the ſenſible appearances of the celeſtial motions. It was taken for granted, that the motions thoſe bodies appeared to poſſeſs, were real; and not dreaming of any motion in the earth, nor being acquainted with the diſtinctions between abſolute, relative, or apparent motion, the philoſophers were incapable of forming adequate ideas of theſe particulars, and thence reduced to the neceſſity of being miſled by their own ſenſes, for want of that aſſiſtance which after ages produced. It is eaſy to obſerve, they had no notion of any other ſyſtem but our own, nor of any other world but the earth on which we live. They were perſuaded that all things were made for the uſe of man; that all the ſtars were contained in one concave ſphere, conſequently, at an equal diſtance from the earth; and that the *Primum Mobile* was circumſcribed by the empyrean heaven, of a cubic form, which they ſuppoſed to be the bliſsful abode of departed ſpirits. But modern obſervations and diſcoveries have ſufficiently ſhewn the abſurdities of this ſyſtem, ſo that it is now abandoned by all the learned, and hardly ever mentioned but to be exploded. Even in the infancy of aſtronomy, it was found inſufficient to account for all the motions of the heavenly bodies, without having recourſe to ſuch abſurd ſuppoſitions that a novice in literature would be aſhamed to propoſe.

The BRAHEAN SYSTEM.

Tycho Brahe, a nobleman of Denmark, and one of the moſt eminent aſtronomers of his time, propoſed another ſyſtem to account for the motion of the heavenly bodies. Unwilling to admit of the motion of the earth, and convinced that the Ptolemaic hypotheſis could not be true, he contrived another, different from any thing before of-

* This planet was diſcovered by William Herſchel, L. L. D. F. R. S. in 1781. In a paper which Dr. Herſchel communicated to the Royal Society in London, in 1788, giving an account of the elements of this new planet, and its two ſatellites, he obſerves, that one of theſe ſatellites revolves in about nine days, the other in about thirteen and an half. The planet moves at about double the diſtance of Saturn. The quantity of matter is ſeventeen times greater than the quantity of matter in the earth; its magnitude about 80 times greater; its denſity about 4 times leſs; and the power of gravity on its ſurface makes a heavy body fall 18 feet in a ſecond. The Doctor, for the purpoſe of making greater diſcoveries in the heavens, has conſtructed a grand reflecting teleſcope, forty feet long, and of ſuch diameter as that it is eaſy to walk through it.

Dr. Price's Letter to Dr. Stiles, 1788.

fered

fered to the world. In this hypotheſis, the earth is ſuppoſed to be at reſt in the center of the univerſe, and the ſun, together with the planets and fixed ſtars, to revolve about the earth in twenty-four hours; and at the ſame time all the planets, except the moon, revolve about the ſun. But this was even more abſurd than that of Ptolemy, and it accordingly was ſoon exploded.

The COPERNICAN, *or* TRUE SOLAR SYSTEM.

Copernicus, the author of this ſyſtem, was born at Thorn, in Royal Pruſſia, in 1473. This hypotheſis, which is now univerſally adopted by all the learned in Europe, ſuppoſes the ſun to be in the center of the ſyſtem, and that all the planets move round him in the order we have already mentioned. Theſe, together with the comets, form the conſtituent parts of the Solar Syſtem. See Plate, where this is repreſented, and by which an adequate idea of the whole may be eaſily obtained.

But it muſt be obſerved, that, though the orbits of the planets are circles in the ſcheme, they are not really ſo, but ellipſes, and the ſun placed in one of the focus's. All the planets have one common focus, in which the ſun is placed. This ſuppoſition readily ſolves all the appearances obſervable in the motion of the planets, and alſo agrees with the ſtricteſt philoſophical and mathematical reaſoning.

All the planets, in their revolutions, are ſometimes nearer to, and ſometimes farther from, the Sun; a conſequence of that luminary's not being placed in the center of each orbit, and their being ellipſes. Hence, alſo, we ſee the reaſon why the planets move faſter as they approach nearer to the ſun, and ſlower as they recede from the ſun.

If a right line, called by ſome the vector radius, be drawn from the ſun through any planet, and ſuppoſed to revolve round the ſun with the planet, this line will deſcribe, or paſs over every part of the plane of the orbit; ſo that the vector radius may be ſaid to deſcribe the area of the orbit.

In the ſolar ſyſtem are obſerved two principal laws which regulate the motions of all the planets. Theſe laws are the following:

1. "The planets deſcribe equal areas in equal times." That is, the vector radius, in equal portions of time, deſcribes equal areas or portions of the ſpace contained within the planet's orbit.

2. "The ſquares of the periodical times of the planets are as the cubes of their mean diſtances from the ſun." That is, as the ſquare of the time which any planet takes to deſcribe its orbit, is to the ſquare of the time taken by any other planet to run through its orbit, ſo is the cube of the mean diſtance of the former from the ſun, to the cube of the mean diſtance of the latter from the ſun.

Theſe are the two famous laws of Kepler, a great aſtronomer, who flouriſhed about the beginning of the ſeventeenth century, and who deduced them from a multitude of obſervations; but the firſt who demonſtrated theſe laws, was the great Sir Iſaac Newton.

By the ſecond law, the relative diſtances of the planets from the ſun are known; and were the real diſtance of any one of them determined, the abſolute diſtances of all the others would be obtained. By the tranſit of Venus over the ſun in 1761, we now know the real diſtances of the planets from the ſun much better than before: theſe, together with the other neceſſary particulars for forming a competent idea of the ſolar ſyſtem, are exhibited in the following table:

A TABLE of the Diameters, Periods, &c. of the ſeveral Planets in the Solar Syſtem.

Names of the planets.	Diameters in Engliſh Miles.	Mean diſtances from the ſun.	Annual periods round the ſun.	Diurnal rotation on its axis.	Hourly motion in its orbit.	Hourly motion of its equator.	Inclination of axis to orbit.
				d. h. m.			° ′
Sun	890,000		y. d. h.	25 6 0		3,818	8 0
Mercury	3,000	36,841,468	0 87 23	unknown	109,699	unknown	unknown
Venus	9,330	68,891,486	0 224 17	24 8 0	80,295	43	75 0
Earth	7,970	95,173,000	1 0 0	1 0 0	68,243	1,042	23 29
Moon	2,186	ditto.	1 0 0	29 12 44	22,290	9½	2 10
Mars	5,400	145,014,148	1 321 17	0 24 40	55,287	556	0 0
Jupiter	94,000	494,990,976	11 314 18	0 9 56	29,083	25,920	0 0
Saturn	78,000	907,956,130	29 176 15	unknown	22,101	unknown	unknown
*Herſchel	637,600	1800,000,000	82 34 0	unknown	unknown	ditto.	ditto.

By the above Table, a competent idea of the Solar Syſtem may be obtained.

The COMETS.

Beſides the planets and ſtars mentioned above, we perceive, in the expanſe of the univerſe, many other bodies belonging to the ſyſtem of the ſun, that ſeem to have much more irregular motions. Theſe are the comets, that, deſcending from the far diſtant parts of the ſyſtem with great rapidity, ſurpriſe us with the ſingular appearance of a train, or tail, which accompanies them, become viſible to us in the lower parts of their orbits, and, after a ſhort ſtay, go off again to vaſt diſtances, and diſappear.

They are large opaque bodies, which move in all poſſible directions. Some revolve from weſt to eaſt; ſome from eaſt to weſt; others from ſouth to north, or from north to ſouth. Their orbits have very different inclinations to the ecliptic. Some have conjectured, that the comets were intended by the all-wiſe Creator to connect ſyſtems, and that each of their ſeveral orbits includes the ſun, and one of the fixed ſtars. The figures of the comets are very different. Some of them emit beams on all ſides like hair, and are called hairy comets, others have a long, fiery, tranſparent tail projecting from the part which is oppoſite to the ſun. Their magnitudes alſo are different. Some appear no bigger than ſtars of the firſt magnitude; others larger than the moon.

Though ſome of the ancients had more juſt notions of theſe bodies, yet the opinion having prevailed, that they were only meteors generated in the air, like thoſe we ſee in it every night, and in a few moments vaniſhing, no care was taken to obſerve or record their phenomena accurately, till of late. Hence this part of aſtronomy is very imperfect. The general doctrine is, that they are ſolid, compact bodies, like other planets, and regulated by the ſame laws of gravity, ſo as to deſcribe equal areas in equal times by radii drawn from the common center. They move about the ſun, in very eccentric ellipſes, and are of much greater denſity than the earth; for ſome of them are heated in every period to ſuch a degree as would vitrify or diſſipate any ſubſtance known to us. Sir Iſaac Newton computed the heat of the comet that appeared in the year 1680, when neareſt the ſun, to be 2000 times hotter than red hot iron, and that being thus heated, it muſt retain its heat till it comes round again, although its period ſhould be more than 20,000 years; and it is computed to be only

* According to Dr. Herſchel, it is about 80 times larger than the earth, which would make its diameter 637,600 miles.

575. The number of comets belonging to our ſyſtem is unknown. All thoſe which have been obſerved have moved through the ethereal regions, and the orbit of the planets, without ſuffering the leaſt ſenſible reſiſtance in their motions, which ſufficiently proves that the planets do not move in ſolid orbs. Of all the comets, the periods of three only are known with any degree of certainty, being found to return at intervals of 75, 129, and 575 years; and of theſe, that which appeared in 1680 is the moſt remarkable. This comet, at its greateſt diſtance, is about 11 thouſand 200 millions of miles from the ſun, while its leaſt diſtance from the center of the ſun, is about 490 thouſand miles; within leſs than one third part of the ſun's ſemidiameter from his ſurface. In that part of his orbit which is neareſt to the ſun, it flies with the amazing velocity of 880,000 miles in an hour; or above 244 miles in a ſecond: a velocity much greater than any we are acquainted with, that of light excepted; and the ſun, as ſeen from it, appears 100 degrees in breadth, conſequently 40,000 times as large as he appears to us. The aſtoniſhing diſtance that this comet runs out into empty ſpace, naturally ſuggeſts to our imagination the vaſt diſtance between our ſun and the neareſt of the fixed ſtars, of whoſe attractions all the comets muſt keep clear, to return periodically and go round the ſun. Dr. Halley, to whom every part of aſtronomy, but this in a particular manner, is highly indebted, has joined his labours to thoſe of the great Sir Iſaac Newton on this ſubject. Our earth was out of the way when this comet laſt paſſed near her orbit: but it requires a more perfect knowledge of the motion of the comet, to be able to judge if it will always paſs by us with ſo little effect; for it may be here obſerved, that the comet, in one part of his orbit, approaches very near to the orbit of our earth: ſo that in ſome revolutions, it may approach near enough to have very conſiderable if not fatal effects upon it.

Of the FIXED STARS.

The fixed ſtars, though they do not conſtitute a part of the ſolar ſyſtem, muſt be conſidered here, as they are of infinite uſe in the practice of geography. They are readily known from the planets by their twinkling. They are obſerved never to change their ſituations with reſpect to each other, and hence they obtained the name of fixed ſtars; they ſhine by their own light; and there is the greateſt reaſon to think they are ſuns fixed in the centers of other ſyſtems, having planets and comets revolving round them like our ſun. They appear of various ſizes, owing to their different diſtances; thoſe ſizes are generally diſtinguiſhed into ſix or ſeven claſſes, called magnitudes; the largeſt and brighteſt are ſaid to be of the firſt magnitude; thoſe of the next claſs, or degree of brightneſs, are called ſtars of the ſecond magnitude, and ſo on to the laſt, or thoſe juſt viſible to the naked eye. But, beſides theſe, there are ſcattered in every part of the heavens, a prodigious number of others, called teleſcopic ſtars, from their being inviſible without the aſſiſtance of that inſtrument. Great part of the modern aſtronomy, indeed, owes both its riſe and perfection to that admirable machine. The diſtance between the earth and the neareſt fixed ſtar is aſtoniſhing. The orbit of the earth is at leaſt 162 millions of miles in diameter; yet this prodigious difference has no effect on the diſtance of the ſtar, which appears as far from the earth, when in the neareſt, as in the fartheſt point of its orbit. It has been computed, by ſome of the moſt able aſtronomers, that if a cannon ball continued to move with the ſame velocity as when firſt diſcharged from the piece, or 480 miles an hour, it would not reach the neareſt fixed ſtar in leſs than 700,000 years. Light, which is tranſmitted from one body to another almoſt inſtantaneouſly, takes up more time in paſſing from the fixed ſtars to this earth, than we

do in making a voyage to Europe; ſo that if all the fixed ſtars were now ſtruck out of exiſtence, they would appear to us to keep their ſtations for ſeveral months yet to come. It is impoſſible, therefore, that they ſhould borrow their light from the ſun, as do the planets. The diſtance, therefore, is too great for the power of human beings to conceive; the underſtanding is bewildered, and loſt in the contemplation. But, though the fixed ſtars are placed at ſuch immenſe diſtances from us and from each other, and are, doubtleſs, ſuns illuminating different worlds, yet aſtronomers, in order to facilitate their computations, conſider them all as equally diſtant from our ſun, forming the ſurface of a ſphere, incloſing our ſyſtem, and called the celeſtial ſphere: a ſuppoſition which may be ſtrictly admitted, conſidering the aſtoniſhing diſtance of the neareſt fixed ſtar.

A conſtellation is a number of ſtars which appear to lie in the neighbourhood of one another on the ſurface of the celeſtial ſphere, and which aſtronomers, for their eaſy remembrance, ſuppoſe to be circumſcribed with the outlines of ſome ancient or other figure, whereby the motions of the planets is more readily deſcribed and compoſed. Theſe conſtellations are eighty in number; twelve of which are in the zodiac, thirty-ſix in the northern, and thirty-two in the ſouthern hemiſphere. The number of ſtars in the whole amounts to two thouſand eight hundred and forty-three, of which twenty are of the firſt, ſixty-five of the ſecond, two hundred and five of the third, four hundred and eighty-five of the fourth, ſix hundred and forty-eight of the fifth, and one thouſand four hundred and twenty of the ſixth magnitude.

Theſe ſtars, by not altering their ſituation in reſpect to one another, ſerve aſtronomers as fixed points, whereby the motions of other bodies may be compared; and, accordingly, their relative poſitions have been ſought after with the moſt aſſiduous care, during many ages, and catalogues of the obſervations have, from time to time, been publiſhed by thoſe who have been at the pains to make them. Among theſe, the moſt copious, and at the ſame time the moſt accurate, is that called the Hiſtoria Cœleſtis of Mr. Flamſtead. To conſider theſe ſtars as deſigned merely to decorate the ſky, and form a rich and beautiful canopy for this earth, would derogate from the wiſdom of the Creator. Aſtronomers, therefore, with much reaſon have conſidered the fixed ſtars as ſo many ſuns attended with a number of revolving planets, which they illuminate, warm, and cheriſh. If this be true, there are as many ſyſtems as there are fixed ſtars. Theſe may alſo revolve round one common center, forming one immenſe ſyſtem of ſyſtems. All theſe ſyſtems, we may conceive, are filled with inhabitants ſuited to their reſpective climes; and are ſo many theatres, on which the great Creator and Governor of the Univerſe diſplays his infinite power, wiſdom, and goodneſs. Such a view of the ſtarry heavens muſt fill the mind of every contemplative beholder with ſublime, magnificent, and glorious ideas of the Creator.

The ancient Egyptian prieſts, to whom the Greeks owed all their philoſophical learning, are ſuppoſed to have been the firſt acquainted with the true ſyſtem of the world. Pythagoras learned it in Egypt, and taught it to his diſciples, after his return to Europe. But it was ſo totally forgotten during the ages of ignorance, that when Copernicus, a celebrated aſtronomer, revived it, in the fifteenth century, he was conſidered as the author rather than the reſtorer. Some of the learned immediately adopted the hypotheſis, and it would probably ſoon have been univerſally received, had it not met with a formidable oppoſition from an ignorant and bigotted clergy. Nurſed in the lap of indolence, and inveterate enemies to every ſpecies of free and impartial inquiry, they condemned the Copernican ſyſtem, under pretence of its being repugnant to the ſacred writings. The thunder of the Vatican was employed to

ſilence

ſilence the voice of reaſon, and the dread of eccleſiaſtical cenſures almoſt deterred mankind from thinking. At laſt, the reformation in religion gave a fatal blow to ſuperſtitious tyranny; the rays of learning broke through the night of ignorance, and genuine philoſophy triumphed over the chicanery of the ſchools: mankind were now convinced, that the ſcriptures were never intended to explain the ſyſtem of philoſophy, but to make us humane, virtuous, and happy; that it is agreeable to the Great Author of our being to contemplate his works, and diſplay the wonders of his creating hand. From this fortunate æra the ſciences made rapid ſtrides toward perfection, and every day produced a diſcovery of ſome new truth, or the detection of ſome ancient error. Proofs were multiplied in confirmation of the Copernican ſyſtem, which is now eſtabliſhed on a foundation not to be ſhaken. The aſtoniſhing harmony which prevails among the ſeveral parts, prove it to have been the work of a divine hand; and that nothing elſe than Infinite Wiſdom could have planned ſo beautiful a fabric.

The limits we are confined to, will not admit of our multiplying proofs to eſtabliſh the Copernican ſyſtem; the following therefore only will be added; but theſe, if there were no other, would be more than ſufficient for the purpoſe.

1. The planets Mercury and Venus are always obſerved to have two conjunctions with the ſun, but no oppoſition: this could not happen, unleſs their orbits were circumſcribed by that of the earth.

2. Mars, Jupiter, and Saturn have each their conjunctions and oppoſitions to the ſun, alternately and ſucceſſively, which they could not have, unleſs their orbs were exterior to that of the earth.

3. The greateſt elongation or diſtance of Mercury from the ſun is about twenty-eight degrees, and that of Venus forty-ſeven degrees; which anſwers exactly to their diſtance in the Copernican ſyſtem: but according to the Ptolemaic, they muſt often be ſeen in oppoſition to him, or at the diſtance of 180 degrees.

4. In this diſpoſition of the planets, they will all of them be ſometimes much nearer to the earth than at others; the conſequence of which is, that their brightneſs and ſplendour, as well as their apparent diameters, will be proportionally greater at one time than at another; and this we obſerve to be true every day. Thus the apparent diameter of Venus, when greateſt, is near ſixty-ſix ſeconds; when leaſt, not more than nine ſeconds and a half: that of Mars, when greateſt, is twenty-one ſeconds; when leaſt, only two and an half. But if the Ptolemaic hypotheſis be true, they muſt always be equal.

5. All the planets ſometimes appear in direct motion; ſometimes ſtationary, and ſometimes retrograde. Theſe appearances muſt happen according to the Copernican ſyſtem, but are abſolutely repugnant to any other.

6. The bodies of Mercury and Venus, in their ſuperior conjunction with the ſun, paſs behind the body of that luminary, and in the inferior conjunction are ſeen to tranſit or paſs over his diſk, in the form of a round black ſpot. Theſe phenomena are neceſſary in the Copernican ſyſtem, but impoſſible in that of Ptolemy.

7. The times in which theſe conjunctions, oppoſitions, ſtations, and retrogradations of the planets happen, are not ſuch as they would be, were the earth at reſt in the center; but preciſely ſuch as would happen, if the earth and all the planets move about the ſun, in the order, and with the velocities aſſigned them in the Copernican ſyſtem. Conſequently this, and no other, can be the true ſyſtem of the world.

Of GEOGRAPHY.—*Its* RISE *and* PROGRESS.

GEOGRAPHY is a word derived from the Greek,* and literally ſignifies a deſcription of the earth, its figure, magnitude, and the poſitions of the ſeveral parts of its ſurface.—Geography is either *univerſal*, as it relates to the earth in general, or *particular*, as it relates to any ſingle part of it.

This ſcience, like all others of a practical nature, has advanced towards perfection by ſlow, and, in ſome periods of time, by almoſt imperceptible degrees. In the infancy of the world the figure of the earth was unknown. It was generally ſuppoſed to be a plane, of a circular ſurface, terminated by the heavens; that this plane was of no remarkable thickneſs; and that the regions below it were the habitations of ſpirits.

Obſervations, however, ſoon demonſtrated, that this was not the real figure of the earth. The deſire of keeping up a mutual intercourſe between each other, and of exchanging their different commodities, induced the inhabitants of ancient times to undertake journies of conſiderable length; and theſe were extended in proportion as the inhabitants ſpread themſelves into diſtant countries. Their principal guides in theſe journies were the heavenly bodies. The ſun was their direction during the day, and the ſtars ſupplied his place in the night. The plains of Aſia, where theſe diſcoveries were made, are extremely favourable for contemplating the face of the heavens during the night. Bleſſed with a climate generally ſerene, the ſky is rarely obſcured; and the practice of ſleeping upon the houſe tops, which has been continued from the earlieſt ages, rendered the poſitions of the ſtars familiar. They could not help obſerving, that, while the greater part revolved round the earth, ſome in the northern parts remained nearly in the ſame ſituation; and that the ſun every day, in his greateſt elevation, was directly oppoſite to the place of theſe ſtars. Hence it was natural to imagine, that all the heavenly bodies revolved round ſome fixed point ſituated near thoſe ſtars; and this point they called the pole. Aſſiſted by theſe diſcoveries, however imperfect, and animated with a deſire of carrying on a commerce with diſtant people, they travelled to very remote countries, and traded with the inhabitants of other climes. Thoſe who directed their journies to the ſouth, could not help obſerving, that the fixed point round which the heavens appeared to revolve, was nearer the horizon there than in their own country; and that new ſtars appeared in the ſouthern extremities of the heavens, which they had not ſeen before. On the contrary, thoſe who directed their courſe towards the north, perceived that ſome of the ſtars in the ſouthern hemiſphere became more depreſſed, and thoſe in the northern more elevated than in their own country. Hence they ſaw that the earth was not a plane, as they had at firſt imagined, but a curve. They further obſerved, that after paſſing over equal diſtances in the direction of the meridian, the greateſt and leaſt elevations of the ſtars were equally increaſed or diminiſhed; and hence they found, that in the direction of the meridian, at leaſt, the ſurface of the earth was circular. From this period geography improved gradually by travels, by commerce, and by conqueſt.

Homer has deſcribed ſo many places with great accuracy and preciſion, that Strabo conſidered him as the firſt among the geographers of early times.

Thales divided the year into 365 days; which was undoubtedly a method diſcovered by the Egyptians, and communicated by them to him. It is ſaid to have been invented by the ſecond Mercury, ſurnamed Triſmegiſtus, who, according to Euſebius, lived about 50 years after the Exodus. From the days of Thales, who flouriſhed in the

* Γεωγραφια, from γῆ, terra, et γραφω ſcribo.

the ſixth century before Chriſt, very little ſeems to have been done towards the eſtabliſhment of geography for 200 years.

The expedition of Alexander, who extended his conqueſts into India, and to the borders of Scythia, made the Greeks acquainted with many countries very remote from their own. That conqueror entertained in his ſervice two engineers, Diognetus and Bæton, whoſe buſineſs conſiſted in meaſuring, and keeping an accurate account of his marches. Pliny and Strabo have preſerved theſe meaſures; Arrian has handed down to us the particulars of the navigation of Nearchus and Oneſicritus, who ſailed back with Alexander's fleet from the mouth of the Indus to thoſe of the Euphrates and Tigris. By reducing Tyre and Sidon, the Greeks informed themſelves of all the places to which the Phenicians traded by ſea; and we know that their commerce extended even to the Britiſh Iſlands. The ſucceſſors of Alexander in the Eaſt, by carrying their conqueſts to the mouths of the Ganges, obtained a general knowledge of many parts of India. Ptolemy Evergetes led his armies into Abyſſinia; and from his marches and ſucceſs in that diſtant country, a general knowledge of it was obtained. But geography acquired ſtill greater advantages from the conqueſts of the Romans. Ambitious of eſtabliſhing an univerſal monarchy, and of forcing all the inhabitants of the earth to ſubmit to the Roman eagles, they carried their armies into very remote countries, and conquered the inhabitants of diſtant climes. Hence the geographers of thoſe times were enabled to deſcribe countries before hardly known, and correct the errors of former writers. The great roads of the empire, meaſured through their whole extent, proved extremely uſeful; and the Itineraries, though often altered, and ſometimes incorrect, afforded conſiderable aſſiſtance. Accordingly moſt of the valuable geographical treatiſes wrote by the ancients, were compoſed during the reigns of the Roman emperors.

Timocharis and Ariſtillus, who began to obſerve about 295 years before Chriſt, ſeem to have been the firſt who attempted to fix the longitudes and latitudes of the fixed ſtars, by conſidering their diſtances from the equator. One of their obſervations gave riſe to the diſcovery of the preceſſion of the Equinoxes, which was firſt obſerved by Hipparchus about 150 years after; and he made uſe of Timocharis and Ariſtillus' method, in order to delineate the parallels of latitude, and the meridians on the ſurface of the earth; thus laying the foundation of the ſcience of geography as we have it at preſent.

Strabo and Ptolemy are the firſt among the ancient geographers, and diſpute the chair of precedence. The geography of Ptolemy is more extenſive; it takes in a greater part of the earth, while it ſeems equally circumſtantial every where: But this very extent renders it more ſuſpected: it is not eaſy to be every where exact and correct. Strabo, on the contrary, relates very little more than what he ſaw with his own eyes; he made a vaſt number of voyages to gain the experience neceſſary to give the requiſite certainty to his accounts, and is very ſhort in what he relates from others. Strabo was a philoſopher as well as a geographer. Good ſenſe, perſpicuity, accuracy, and ſolidity of judgement are viſible in every part of his works. Ptolemy, however, by diſpoſing his geography by latitudes and longitudes, opened a way for improvement, and pointed out a method for carrying the art to perfection. The diſcovery of the longitudes and latitudes immediately laid a foundation for making maps, or delineations of the ſurface of the earth *in plano*, on a very different plan from what had been attempted before. Formerly the maps were little more than rude outlines and topographical ſketches of different countries. The earlieſt were thoſe of Seſoſtris, mentioned by Euſtathius; who ſays, that "this Egyptian king, having traverſed great part of the earth, recorded his march in maps, and gave copies of his maps not only to the Egyptians, but to the

Scythians, to their great aſtoniſhment."—Some have imagined, that the Jews made a map of the holy land, when they gave the different portions to the nine tribes at Shiloh: For Joſhua tells us, that they were ſent to walk through the land, and that they *deſcribed it in ſeven parts in a book*; and Joſephus tells us, that when Joſhua ſent out people from the different tribes to meaſure the land, he gave them, as companions, perſons well ſkilled in geometry.

Eratoſthenes was the firſt who attempted to reduce geography to a regular ſyſtem, and introduced a regular parallel of latitude. This was traced over certain places where the longeſt day was of the ſame length. He began it from the ſtraits of Gibraltar; and it thence paſſed through the Sicilian ſea, and near the ſouthern extremities of Peloponneſus. From thence it was continued through the iſland of Rhodes and the bay of Iſſus; and there entering Cilicia, and croſſing the rivers Euphrates and Tigris, it was extended to the mountains of India. By means of this line, he endeavoured to rectify the errors of the ancient map, ſuppoſed to be that of Anaximander. In drawing this parallel, he was regulated by obſerving where the longeſt day was fourteen hours and an half, which Hipparchus afterwards determined to be the latitude of 36 degrees.

The firſt parallel through Rhodes was ever afterwards conſidered with a degree of preference, like the foundation ſtone of all ancient maps; and the longitude of the then known world was often attempted to be meaſured in ſtadia and miles, according to the extent of that line, by many ſucceeding geographers. Eratoſthenes ſoon after attempted not only to draw other parallels of latitude, but alſo to trace a meridian at right angles to theſe, paſſing through Rhodes and Alexandria, down to Syene and Merce; and as the progreſs he thus made tended naturally to enlarge his ideas, he at laſt undertook a ſtill more arduous taſk, namely, to determine the circumference of the globe by an actual meaſurement of a ſegment of one of its great circles. He knew that at the ſummer ſolſtice, the ſun was vertical to the inhabitants of Syene, a town on the confines of Ethiopia, under the tropic of Cancer, where they had a well ſunk for that purpoſe, on the bottom of which the rays of the ſun fell perpendicular the day of the ſummer ſolſtice: he obſerved, by the ſhadow of a wire ſet perpendicular in an hemiſpherical baſon, how much the ſun was on the ſame day at noon diſtant from the zenith of Alexandria; and found that diſtance to be one 50th part of a great circle in the heavens. Suppoſing then Syene and Alexandria to be under the ſame meridian, he concluded the diſtance between them to be the 50th part of a great circle upon the earth; and this diſtance being by meaſure 5000 ſtadia, he concluded the circumference of the earth to be 250,000 ſtadia; but as this number divided by 360 would give 694⅓ ſtadia to a degree, either Eratoſthenes himſelf, or ſome of his followers, aſſigned the round number 700 ſtadia to a degree; which multiplied by 360, makes the circumference of the earth 252,000 ſtadia;* whence both theſe meaſures are given by different authors as that of Eratoſthenes.

Aſtronomy was not neglected by the ancient geographers. They were convinced, that without its aſſiſtance no great progreſs could be made in their art. Their inſtruments, indeed, were inaccurate and imperfect, but they were aſſiduous in their obſervations. They generally determined the latitudes of places by the ſhadow of a gnomon of ſome known height; but they had no other method for determining the longitudes of

* A ſtadium is the 8th part of a mile, hence 252,000 ſtadia are equal to 31,500 miles. The real circumference of the earth is but 25,038 miles.

places than that of obſerving the eclipſes of the moon; they knew, that by comparing the times when any of theſe phenomena happened at different places, the difference of longitude between them might be known.

The parts of the earth's ſurface known to the ancients were confined within narrow bounds. On the weſt, the Atlantic ocean and Britiſh iſles limited their knowledge. The Fortunate iſlands, now called the Canaries, were the remoteſt lands they were acquainted with to the ſouth. Their notions were very imperfect with regard to the northern countries. Though Scandinavia was known, yet that, and ſome other countries on the ſame continent, were conſidered as large iſlands. It is not eaſy to determine what place the ancients underſtood by *Ultima Thule*; many take it for Iceland; but Procopius thinks it was a part of Scandinavia.

Their knowledge of Sarmatia and Scythia was far from extending to the ſea which bounds Ruſſia and Great Tartary on the north and eaſt. Their diſcoveries went no farther than the Rippean mountains, which now divide Ruſſia from Siberia. The weſtern frontier of China ſeems to have bounded the knowledge of the ancients on the eaſt. Ptolemy, indeed, had a very imperfect notion of the ſouthern parts of that extenſive empire. He compoſed his ſyſtem of geography about 150 years after Chriſt, in the reign of Antoninus Pius. The principal materials he made uſe of for compoſing this work, were *the proportions of the gnomon to its ſhadow*, taken by different aſtronomers at the times of the equinoxes and ſolſtices; calculations founded upon the length of the longeſt days; the meaſures or computed diſtances of the principal roads contained in their ſurveys and itineraries; and the various reports of travellers and navigators, who often determined the diſtances of places by hearſay and conjecture. All theſe were compared together, and digeſted into one uniform body or ſyſtem; and afterwards were tranſlated by him into a new mathematical language, expreſſing the different degrees of longitude and latitude, according to the invention of Hipparchus, but which Ptolemy had the merit of carrying into full practice and execution, after it had been neglected for upwards of 250 years. With ſuch imperfect and inaccurate materials, it is no wonder to find many errors in Ptolemy's ſyſtem. Neither were theſe errors ſuch as had been introduced in the more diſtant extremities of his maps, but even in the very center of that part of the world which was the beſt known to the ancient Greeks and Romans, and where all the famed ancient aſtronomers had made their obſervations.—Yet this ſyſtem, with all its imperfections, continued in vogue till the beginning of the preſent century. All the others, which now make ſo conſpicuous a figure in the commerce of Europe, were unknown. How far they extended their diſcoveries with regard to Africa, cannot certainly be known. Some are of opinion, that they were acquainted with the whole coaſt, having ſailed round the ſouthern extremity, now called the Cape of Good Hope, and extended their voyages from the Red Sea to the Mediterranean. Ptolemy, however, ſeems to inſinuate, that the ſouthern parts had eſcaped their knowledge. Indeed, the opinion almoſt univerſally embraced by the ancients, that the torrid zone was uninhabitable, ſeems to prove, that their knowledge of Africa was very confined; becauſe, as great part of that country lies in the burning zone, their acquaintance with it muſt have convinced them, that the general notion was founded on miſtake.

The diſcovery of the ſouthern parts of Africa was reſerved for the Portugueſe. Animated with a deſire of finding a paſſage to the Eaſt Indies, they coaſted along the weſtern ſide of Africa, and, in the fifteenth century, completed the deſign. They paſſed the Cape of Good Hope, and purſued their courſe to the Indies. The paſſage being thus opened, ſeveral European nations, deſirous of ſharing in the rich commerce

of the eaſt, ſent their ſhips to the Indian ſea, where they diſcovered the Aſiatic iſlands, and penetrated to the empire of Japan. The voyages of the Ruſſians have completed our knowledge of the eaſtern parts of the continent of Aſia.

The prodigious length of the voyage to India, round the ſouthern extremity of Africa, induced Chriſtopher Columbus to attempt the diſcovery of a ſhorter tract. About the end of the fifteenth century he croſſed the Atlantic ocean; but, inſtead of the Indies, he found America, and put the crown of Caſtile, under whoſe auſpices the voyage was undertaken, in poſſeſſion of a New World.

The improvements in geography which ſince have taken place, have been owing to the great progreſs made in aſtronomy. More correct methods and inſtruments for obſerving the latitude have been found out; and the diſcovery of Jupiter's Satellites have afforded a much eaſier method of finding the longitudes than was formerly known. The voyages made by different nations alſo, which are now become frequent, have brought to our knowledge, a vaſt number of countries utterly unknown before. The voyages of Captain Cooke, and other late navigators and travellers, have contributed greatly to the improvement of geography during the preſent century; ſo that now the geography of the utmoſt extremities of the earth is in a fair way of being much better known to the moderns than that of the adjacent countries was to the ancients.

FIGURE, MAGNITUDE *and* MOTION *of the* EARTH.

THE fundamental principles of geography are, the ſpherical figure of the earth; its rotation on its axis; its revolution round the ſun; and the poſition of the axis or line round which it revolves, with regard to the celeſtial luminaries. That the earth and ſea taken together conſtitute one vaſt ſphere, is demonſtrable by the following arguments:

1ſt, Such a figure is beſt adapted to motion. 2d, The higher the eye is placed, the more extenſive is the proſpect; whence it is common for ſailors to climb up to the tops of the maſts to diſcover land or ſhips at a diſtance. But this would give them no advantage were it not for the convexity of the earth; for upon an infinitely extended plane, objects would be viſible at the ſame diſtance whether the eye were high or low; nor would any of them vaniſh till the angle under which they appeared became too ſmall to be perceptible. 3d, To people on ſhore, the maſt of a ſhip at ſea appears before the hull; but were the earth an infinite plane, not the higheſt objects, but the biggeſt, would be longeſt viſible; and the maſt of a ſhip would diſappear, by reaſon of the ſmallneſs of its angle, long before the hull. 4th, To people at ſea, the land diſappears, though near enough to be viſible, were it not for the intervening convexity of the water. 5th, We argue from analogy, all the other planets being of a ſpherical figure. 6th, The earth has often been ſailed round; as by Magellan, Drake, Dampier, Anſon, Cooke, and many others; which demonſtrates that the ſurface of the ocean is ſpherical; and that the land is very little different, may eaſily be proved from the ſmall elevation of any part of it above the ſurface of the water. The mouths of rivers, which run 1000 miles, are not more than one mile below their ſources; and the higheſt mountains are not quite four miles of perpendicular height: ſo that, though ſome parts of the land are elevated into hills, and others depreſſed into valleys, the whole may ſtill be accounted ſpherical. 7th, An undeniable and indeed ocular demonſtration of the ſpherical figure of the earth is taken from the round figure of its ſhadow, which falls upon the moon in the time of eclipſes. As various ſides of the earth are turned towards the ſun during the time of different phenomena of this kind, and the ſhadow in all caſes appears circular, it is impoſſible to ſuppoſe the figure of the earth to be any other

other than ſpherical. The inequalities of its ſurface have no effect upon the earth's ſhadow on the moon; for as the diameter of the terraqueous globe is very little leſs than 8000 miles, and the height of the higheſt mountain on earth not quite four, we cannot account the latter any more than the 2000th part of the former; ſo that the mountains bear no more proportion to the bulk of the earth, than grains of duſt bear to that of a common globe.

The earth is not truly ſpherical, but an oblate ſpheroid, or flatted at the poles, ſomething in the form of a flat turnip. Its diameter from eaſt to weſt is a few miles longer than that from north to ſouth. As many find it difficult to conceive how people can ſtand on the oppoſite ſide of the globe without falling off, their conception may be aſſiſted by ſuppoſing all the various bodies on the earth's ſurface were of iron, and a very large magnet were placed at the center; then all bodies being attracted towards the center by the magnet they would not fall off, which way ſoever the earth ſhould turn. Now the attraction of gravitation operates on *all* bodies, as that of magnetiſm does on iron only.

According to Norwood's meaſure of a degree, which is generally preferred, on ſuppoſition that the earth is a true ſphere, its circumference is 25,020 miles. But by conſidering its true figure, its circumference at the equator is 25,038 miles, and the length of an elliptical meridian 25,927. Though the earth is an oblate ſpheroid, yet the difference between the two diameters and their two circumferences is but ſmall. Had the difference been more conſiderable, it would have greatly affected all nautical and geographical concluſions deduced from a ſphere; but the ſmallneſs of the difference renders the error ſcarcely diſcernible, unleſs the diſtance be very great, and the latitudes very high. In the conſtruction of globes, maps, charts, &c. the earth is conſidered as a perfect ſphere.

The earth, like the reſt of the planets, has two motions, one round its axis, the other round the ſun. It revolves round its axis once in 24 hours, and cauſes a continual ſucceſſion of day and night, and an *apparent* motion of the heavenly bodies, from eaſt to weſt. By this motion on its axis the inhabitants on the equator are carried 1040 miles in an hour. It completes its revolution round the ſun once in a year, and occaſions the difference in the length of the days and nights, and the agreeable variety in the ſeaſons.

The diameter of the earth's orbit is 190,346,000 miles, and its circumference 597,987,646 miles. Its hourly motion in its orbit is 68,217 miles, which is 142 times greater than that of a cannon ball, which moves about 8 miles in a minute; and would be 22 years and 228 days in going from this earth to the ſun. Many of the terreſtrial phenomena depend upon the globular figure of the earth, and the poſition of its axis with regard to the ſun; particularly the riſing and ſetting of the celeſtial luminaries, the length of the days and nights, &c. It belongs to geography to take notice of the difference betwixt the ſame phenomena in different parts of the earth. Thus, though the ſun riſes and ſets all over the world, the circumſtances of his doing ſo are very different in different countries. The moſt remarkable of theſe circumſtances is the duration of the light not only of the ſun himſelf, but of the twilight before he riſes and after he ſets. In the equatorial regions, for inſtance, darkneſs comes on very ſoon after ſunſet: becauſe the convexity of the earth comes quickly in between the eye of the obſerver and the luminary, the motion of the earth being much more rapid there than any where elſe. In our climate the twilight always continues between one and two hours, and during the longeſt days in the ſummer ſeaſon it continues in a conſiderable degree during the whole night. In countries farther to the northward or ſouthward, the

twilight

twilight becomes brighter and brighter as we approach the poles, until at laſt the ſun does not appear to touch the horizon, but goes in a circle at ſome diſtance above it for many days ſucceſſively. In like manner, during the winter, the ſame luminary ſinks lower and lower, until at laſt he does not appear at all; and there is only a dim twinkling of twilight for an hour or two in the middle of the day. By reaſon of the refraction of the atmoſphere, however, the time of darkneſs, even in the moſt inhoſpitable climates, is always leſs than that of light; and ſo remarkable is the effect of this property, that in the year 1682, when ſome Dutch navigators wintered in Nova Zembla, the ſun was viſible to them ſixteen days before he could have been ſeen above the horizon had there been no atmoſphere, or had it not been endowed with any ſuch power. The reaſon of all this is, that in the northern and ſouthern regions only a ſmall part of the convexity of the globe is interpoſed betwixt us and the ſun for many days, and in the high latitudes none at all. In the warmer climates the ſun has often a beautiful appearance at riſing and ſetting, by reaſon of the refraction of his light through the vapours which are copiouſly raiſed in thoſe parts.—In the colder regions, halos, parhelia, aurora borealis, and other meteors, are frequent; the two former owing to the great quantity of vapour continually flying from the warm regions of the equator to the colder ones of the poles. The aurora borealis is owing, ſome ſay, to the electrical matter imbibed by the earth from the ſun in the warm climates, and going off through the upper regions of the atmoſphere to the place from whence it came. In the high northern latitudes, thunder and lightning are unknown, or but ſeldom heard of; but the more terrible phenomena of earthquakes, volcanoes, &c. are by no means unfrequent. Theſe, however, ſeem only to affect iſlands and the maritime parts of the continent.

Notwithſtanding the ſeeming inequality in the diſtribution of light and darkneſs, it is certain, that throughout the whole world there is nearly an equal proportion of light diffuſed on every part, abſtracting from what is abſorbed by clouds, vapours, and the atmoſphere itſelf. The equatorial regions have indeed the moſt intenſe light during the day, but the nights are long and dark; while on the other hand, in the northerly and ſoutherly parts, though the ſun ſhines leſs powerfully, yet the length of time that he appears above the horizon, with the greater duration of the twilight, makes up for the ſeeming deficiency.

Were the earth a perfect plane, the ſun would appear to be vertical in every part of it: for in compariſon with the immenſe magnitude of that luminary, the diameter of this globe itſelf is but very ſmall: and as the ſun, were he near to us, would do much more than cover the whole earth; ſo, though he were moved to any diſtance, the whole diameter of the latter would make no difference in the apparent angle of his latitude. By means of the globular figure of the earth alſo, along with the great diſparity between the diameters of the two bodies, ſome advantage is given to the day over the night: for thus the ſun being immenſely the larger of the two, ſhines upon more than one half of the earth; whence the unenlightened part has a ſhorter way to go before it again receives the benefit of his rays. This difference is greater in the inferior planets, Venus and Mercury, than in the earth.

DOCTRINE *of the* SPHERE.

DEFINITIONS *and* PRINCIPLES.

A SPHERE, with aſtronomers, is the whole frame of the world, as being of a globular figure, or more ſtrictly, the *Primum Mobile*, which encloſes all the other orbs and heavenly bodies.

A direct

A direct or right ſphere is, when both the poles of the world are in the horizon, and the equinoctial paſſes through the zenith; ſo that the equator and all its parallels, ſuch as the tropics and polar circles, make right angles with the horizon, and are divided by it into two equal parts; ſo that the ſun, moon, and ſtars aſcend directly above, and deſcend directly below the horizon. See the Plate.

An oblique ſphere is that where all the diurnal motions are oblique to the horizon. This is common to all parts of the earth, except thoſe under the poles and the equator. In an oblique ſphere, one of the poles is elevated above, and the other depreſſed below the horizon.

A parallel ſphere is when one pole is in the zenith and the other in the nadir, in which the equator, and all its parallels, are parallel with the horizon: this poſition is peculiar to thoſe parts which lie directly under the poles.

In geography the circles which the ſun apparently deſcribes in the heavens, are ſuppoſed to be extended as far as the earth, and marked on its ſurface. We may imagine as many circles as we pleaſe to be deſcribed on the earth, and their planes to be extended to the celeſtial ſphere till they mark concentric ones on the heavens. Each circle is divided into 360 equal parts, called degrees, each degree is divided into 60 ſeconds. The circles ſuppoſed by geographers to be deſcribed in this manner, are denominated *great* and *leſs* circles.

Great Circles are thoſe which divide either the celeſtial or terreſtrial ſphere into two equal parts. Of theſe there are ſix—the Equator, the Meridian, the Ecliptic, the Horizon, and the two Colures.

Leſs Circles are thoſe which divide the ſphere into two unequal parts; of which there are four, the two *Tropics* and the two *Polar Circles*.

Axis and Poles of the Earth.] The axis of the earth is an imaginary line paſſing through its center from north to ſouth. The extreme points of the axis are called the poles.

Equator.] The equator is that line or circle which encompaſſes the middle of the earth, dividing the northern half from the ſouthern. This line is often called the *equinoctial*, becauſe, when the ſun appears therein, the days and nights are equal in all parts of the world. From this line latitude is reckoned.

Meridian.] This circle, repreſented on the artificial globe by a braſs ring, paſſes through the poles of the earth, and the *zenith* and the *nadir*, croſſing the equator at right angles and dividing the globe into eaſtern and weſtern hemiſpheres. It is called *meridian* from the Latin *meridies*, *mid-day*; becauſe when the ſun comes to the ſouth part of this circle it is called noon, and the day is half ſpent. There are an infinite number of meridians, which vary as you travel eaſt or weſt. Geographers aſſume one of the meridians for the firſt; commonly that which paſſes through the metropolis of their own country. The meridian of Philadelphia is the firſt for Americans; that of London for the Engliſh; and that of Paris for the French.

Zodiac.] If the two circles were drawn parallel to the ecliptic, at the diſtance of eight degrees on each ſide of it, the ſpace, or girdle included between theſe two parallels, ſixteen degrees broad, and divided in the middle by the ecliptic, will comprehend within it the orbits of all the planets, and is called the *Zodiac*.

Ecliptic.] The Ecliptic is a great circle, in the plane of which the earth performs her annual revolution round the ſun, or in which the ſun ſeems to move round the earth, once in a year. This circle is called the *Ecliptic*, from the word *Eclipſe*, becauſe no eclipſe of the ſun or moon happens, but when the moon is in or near the plane of this circle. It makes an angle with the equator of 23° 30′, and interſects it in two oppoſite parts,

parts, called the *Equinoctial points*, becauſe when the ſun is in either of theſe points, he has no declination, and ſhines equally to both poles, and the day is then equal to the night all over the world. The times when the ſun paſſes through theſe points, are the 21ſt of March, and the 21ſt of September: The former is called the *vernal*, the latter the *autumnal* equinox.

The ecliptic is divided into twelve equal parts, of thirty degrees each, called ſigns. Theſe begin at the vernal interſection of the ecliptic with the equator, and are numbered from weſt to eaſt. The names and characters of the ſigns, with the months in which the ſun enters them, are as follows:

Latin names of the ſigns.	Engliſh names.	Characters.	Months in which the ſun enters them.
1 Aries	The Ram	♈	March
2 Taurus	The Bull	♉	April
3 Gemini	The Twins	♊	May
4 Cancer	The Crab	♋	June
5 Leo	The Lion	♌	July
6 Virgo	The Virgin	♍	Auguſt
7 Libra	The Scales	♎	September
8 Scorpio	The Scorpion	♏	October
9 Sagittarius	The Archer	♐	November
10 Capricornus	The Goat	♑	December
11 Aquarius	The Water-Bearer	♒	January
12 Piſces	The Fiſhes	♓	February

The firſt ſix are called northern, and the latter ſouthern ſigns; becauſe the former poſſeſs that half of the ecliptic, which lies to the northward of the equinoctial, and the latter that half which lies to the ſouthward.

Horizon.] The horizon, repreſented on the artificial globe by a broad wooden circle, divides it into upper and lower hemiſpheres. There are, geographically ſpeaking, two horizons, the *ſenſible* and the *rational*. The ſenſible horizon is that circle which limits our proſpect; where the ſky and the land, or water, appear to meet. The rational or real horizon, is a circle whoſe plane paſſes through the center of the earth, dividing it into upper and lower hemiſpheres.

The horizon is divided into four quarters, and each quarter into 90 degrees. The four quartering points, viz. eaſt, weſt, north, and ſouth, are called the *cardinal points*. The poles of the horizon are the zenith and the nadir. The former is the point directly over our heads; the latter the point directly under our feet.

Colures.] The two meridians that paſs through the four above-mentioned points have particular names; that which paſſes through the firſt degrees of Aries and Libra is called the equinoctial *Colure*, and that which paſſes through the firſt degrees of Cancer and Capricorn is termed the ſolſtitial *Colure*. Theſe Colures cut each other at right angles in the poles of the world.

Circles of longitude in the heavens are great circles of the ſphere imagined to paſs through the poles of the ecliptic, and to cut the ecliptic at right angles, as the meridians do the equinoctial.

The latitude of any heavenly object is an arch of a circle of longitude, intercepted between the center of the object and the ecliptic. If the object be on the north ſide of the ecliptic, it is ſaid to be in north latitude; if on the ſouth, in ſouth latitude.

Parallels of celeſtial latitude, are ſmall circles drawn parallel to the ecliptic.

The

The longitude of any heavenly object is an arch of the ecliptic, intercepted between the firſt point of Aries, and a circle of longitude paſſing through the center of the object. The right aſcenſion of any heavenly object is an arch of the equinoctial, intercepted between the firſt point of Aries, and a meridian paſſing through the center of the object.

The declination of any heavenly object is an arch of the meridian, intercepted between the center of the object and the equinoctial. If the object be on the north ſide of the equinoctial, it is ſaid to have north declination; if on the ſouth ſide, it has ſouth declination. All ſmall circles in the celeſtial ſphere parallel to the equinoctial, are called parallels of declination. Among theſe are the tropic of Cancer, the tropic of Capricorn, the Arctic and Antarctic circles.

Tropics.] The tropics, are two circles drawn parallel to the equator, at the diſtance of 23° 29′ on each ſide of it. Theſe circles form the limits of the ecliptic, or the ſun's declination from the equator. That which is in the northern hemiſphere, is called the tropic of Cancer, becauſe it touches the ecliptic in the ſign Cancer; and that in the ſouthern hemiſphere, is called the tropic of Capricorn, becauſe it touches the ecliptic in the ſign Capricorn. On the 21ſt of June the ſun is in Cancer, and we have the longeſt day. On the 21ſt of December the ſun is in Capricorn, and we have the ſhorteſt day. They are called *tropics*, from the Greek word TREPO, *to turn*, becauſe when the ſun arrives at them, he returns again to the equator.

Polar Circles.] The two polar circles are deſcribed round the poles of the earth at the diſtance of 23° 29′. The *northern* is called the *Arctic circle*, from *Arctos*, or the bear, a conſtellation ſituated near that place in the heavens; the *ſouthern*, being oppoſite to the former, is called the *Antarctic circle*.—The polar circles bound the places where the ſun ſets daily. Beyond them the ſun revolves without ſetting.

The azimuths, or vertical circles, are great circles paſſing through the zenith and nadir, and cutting the horizon at right angles.

The altitude of an heavenly object is an arch of a vertical circle, intercepted between the center of the object and the horizon.

The zenith diſtance of any heavenly object, is an arch of a vertical circle, intercepted between the center of the object and the zenith. The meridian altitude, or meridian zenith diſtance, is the altitude, or zenith diſtance, when the object is in the meridian.

Zones.] The ſurface of the earth is ſuppoſed to be divided into five unequal parts called zones, each of which is terminated by two parallels of latitude. Of theſe five zones, one is called the torrid or burning zone; two are ſtiled frigid or frozen; and two temperate; names adapted to the quality of the heat and cold to which their ſituations are liable.

The torrid zone is that portion of the earth over every part of which the ſun is perpendicular at ſome time of the year. The breadth of this zone is forty-ſeven degrees; extending from twenty-three degrees and a half north latitude, to twenty-three degrees and a half ſouth. The equator paſſes through the middle of this zone, which is terminated on the north by the parallel of latitude called the tropic of Cancer, and on the ſouth by the parallel called the tropic of Capricorn. The ancients conſidered this zone as uninhabitable, on account of the heat, which they thought too great to be ſupported by any human being, or even by the vegetable creation; but experience has long ſince refuted this notion.

Many parts of the torrid zone are remarkably populous; and it has been found that the long nights, great dews, regular rains and breezes, which prevail in almoſt every

part of the torrid zone, render the earth not only inhabitable, but alſo ſo fruitful, that two harveſts a year are very common. All ſorts of ſpices and drugs are almoſt ſolely produced there; and it furniſhes more perfect metals, precious ſtones, and pearls, than all the reſt of the earth together.

This zone comprehends the Eaſt and Weſt Indies, Philippine Iſlands, greater part of South America and Africa, and almoſt all Capt. Cook's diſcoveries, including the northern parts of New Holland.

The frigid zones are thoſe regions round the pole where the ſun does not riſe for ſome days in the winter, nor ſet for ſome days in the ſummer. The two poles are the centers of theſe zones, which extend from theſe points to twenty-three degrees and a half nearly; that is, they are bounded by the northern and ſouthern parallels of latitude of ſixty-ſix degrees and a half. The part that lies in the northern hemiſphere is called the north frigid zone, and is bounded by a parallel called the arctic or polar circle; and that in the ſouthern hemiſphere, the ſouth frigid zone, and the parallel of latitude which bounds it, is called the antarctic, or polar circle. The northern frigid zone comprehends Nova Zembla, Lapland, part of Norway, Baffin's-Bay, part of Greenland, and part of Siberia.—The ſouthern frigid zone has no land known to us. The two temperate zones are the ſpaces contained between the tropics and polar circles.

The northern temperate zone contains almoſt all Europe, the greater part of Aſia, part of Africa, the United States of America, and the Britiſh Colonies.—The ſouthern temperate zone comprizes the ſouth part of New Holland, (including Botany-Bay) Cape of Good Hope and Cape Horn.

In the frigid zones the longeſt day is never below 24 hours; in the temperate zones not quite ſo much, and in the torrid never more than 14 hours.

Climates.] The word *climate* has two ſignifications, the one common, and the other geographical. In common language, the word is uſed to denote the difference in the ſeaſons and the temperature of the air. When two places differ in theſe reſpects, they are ſaid to be in different climates.

In a *geographical* ſenſe, a climate is a tract of the earth's ſurface, included between the equator and a parallel of latitude, or between two parallels of ſuch a breadth, as that the length of the day in the one, be half an hour longer than in the other. Within the polar circles, however, the breadth of a circle is ſuch, that the length of a day, or the time of the ſun's continuance above the horizon without ſetting, is a month longer in one parallel, as you proceed northerly, than in the other.

Under the equator, the day is always twelve hours long. The days gradually increaſe in length as you advance either north or ſouth from the equator. The ſpace between the equator, and a parallel line drawn at the diſtance of 8° 25′, where the days are twelve hours and a half long, is called the firſt climate; and by conceiving parallels drawn in this manner, at the increaſe of every half hour, it will be found that there are twenty-four climates between the equator and each of the polar circles. Forty-eight in the whole.

Under the polar circles, the longeſt day is twenty-four hours. The ſun, when at the tropics, ſkims the horizon without ſetting. As you advance from the polar circles to the poles, the ſun continues above the horizon for days, weeks, and months, in a conſtant increaſe, until you arrive at the poles, where the ſun is ſix months above the horizon; and the whole year may be ſaid to conſiſt of but one day and one night.

There are thirty climates between the equator and either pole. In the firſt twenty-four, between the equator and each polar circle, the period of increaſe for every climate

climate is half an hour. In the other ſix, between the polar circles and either pole, the period of increaſe for each climate is a month. Theſe climates continually decreaſe in breadth as you proceed from the equator, as may be ſeen by attending to the following table:

TABLE.

Names of Countries and remarkable Places, ſituated in the reſpective Climates, north of the Equator.

Climates.	Longeſt day.	Latitudes in which the reſpective climates begin and end. d.	m.	
				WITHIN THE FIRST CLIMATE LIE,
1	12½	8	25	1 The Gold coaſt in Africa, Molucca in Eaſt Indies, Cayenne & Surinam in S. Amer.
2	13	16	25	2 Abyſſinia, Siam, Madras, Darien, Barbadoes, Tobago, &c.
3	13½	23	50	3 Mecca, Bombay, Bengal, Canton, Mexico, Jamaica, Guadaloupe.
4	14	30	25	4 Egypt, Delhi, Canary Iſles, Eaſt Florida, Havannah.
5	14½	36	28	5 Gibraltar, Jeruſalem, Iſpahan, Nankin, Georgia and Carolinas.
6	15	41	22	6 Liſbon, Madrid, Aſia-Minor, Virginia, Maryland, Philadelphia.
7	15½	45	29	7 Rome, Genoa, Conſtantinople, Caſpian Sea, New York, New England.
8	16	49	01	8 Paris, Vienna, Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, Canada.
9	16½	52	00	9 London, Flanders, Prague, Dreſden, Cracow, Tartary.
10	17	54	27	10 Dublin, Warſaw, Holland, Hanover, Labrador, New South Wales.
11	17½	56	37	11 Edinburgh, Copenhagen, Moſcow, capital of Ruſſia.
12	18	58	29	12 South part of Sweden, Tobolſki, capital of Siberia.
13	18½	59	58	13 Orkney Iſles, Stockholm, capital of Sweden.
14	19	61	18	14 Bergen in Norway, Peterſburgh in Ruſſia.
15	19½	62	25	15 Hudſon's Straits, North America.
16	20	63	22	16 South part of Weſt Greenland, Siberia.
17	20½	64	06	17 Drontheim in Norway.
18	21	64	49	18 Part of Finland in Ruſſia.
19	21½	65	21	19 Archangel on the White-Sea, Ruſſia.
20	22	65	47	20 Hecla in Iceland.
21	22½	66	06	21 Northern Parts of Ruſſia and Siberia.
22	23	66	20	22 New North Wales in North America.
23	23½	66	28	23 Davis's Straits in ditto.
24	24	66	31	24 Samoieda.
25	month	67	21	25 South Part of Lapland.
26	2 do.	69	48	26 Weſt Greenland.
27	3 do.	73	37	27 Zembla Auſtralis.
28	4 do.	78	30	28 Zembla Borealis.
29	5 do.	84	05	29 Spitſbergen, or Eaſt Greenland.
30	6 do.	90	00	30 Unknown.

Latitude.] The *latitude* of a place is its diſtance from the equator, reckoned in degrees, &c. north or ſouth, on the meridian. The greateſt latitude is that of the poles, which are ninety degrees diſtant from the equator. If the place be ſituated between the equator and the north pole, it is ſaid to be in north latitude; if it lie between the equator and the ſouth pole, it is in ſouth latitude.

The elevation of the pole above the horizon, is always equal to the latitude of the place; for to a perſon ſituated on the equator, both poles will reſt in the horizon. If you travel one, two, or more degrees north, the north pole will riſe one, two, or more degrees, and will keep pace with your diſtance from the equator.

Longitude.] Every place on the ſurface of the earth has its meridian. The *longitude* of a place is the diſtance of its meridian from ſome other fixed meridian, meaſured on the equator. Longitude is either eaſt or weſt. All places eaſt of the fixed or firſt meridian, are in eaſt longitude; all weſt, in weſt longitude. On the equator, a degree of longitude is equal to ſixty geographical miles; and of courſe, a minute on the equator is equal to a mile. But as all the meridians cut the equator at right angles, and approach nearer and nearer to each other, until at laſt they croſs at the poles, it is

obvious that the degrees of longitude will leſſen as you go from the equator to either pole; ſo that in the ſixtieth degree of latitude, a degree of longitude is but thirty miles, or half as long as a degree on the equator; as is evident from the following table:

A TABLE,

Shewing the number of miles contained in a degree of longitude in each parallel of latitude from the equator.

Degrees of latitude.	Miles.	60th parts of a mile.	Degrees of latitude.	Miles.	60th parts of a mile.	Degrees of latitude.	Miles.	60th parts of a mile.	Degrees of latitude.	Miles.	60th parts of a mile.	Degrees of latitude.	Miles.	60th parts of a mile.
1	59	56	19	56	44	37	47	56	55	34	24	73	17	32
2	59	54	20	56	24	38	47	16	56	33	32	74	16	32
3	59	52	21	56	00	39	46	36	57	32	40	75	15	32
4	59	50	22	55	36	40	46	00	58	31	48	76	14	32
5	59	46	23	55	12	41	45	16	59	30	50	77	13	32
6	59	40	24	54	48	42	44	36	60	30	00	78	12	32
7	59	37	25	54	24	43	43	52	61	29	04	79	11	28
8	59	24	26	54	00	44	43	8	62	28	08	80	10	24
9	59	10	27	53	28	45	42	24	63	27	12	81	09	20
10	59	00	28	53	00	46	41	40	64	26	16	82	08	20
11	58	52	29	52	28	47	41	00	65	25	20	83	07	20
12	58	40	30	51	56	48	40	8	66	24	24	84	06	12
13	58	28	31	51	24	49	39	20	67	23	28	85	05	12
14	58	12	32	50	52	50	38	22	68	22	32	86	04	12
15	58	00	33	50	20	51	37	44	69	21	32	87	03	12
16	57	40	34	49	44	52	37	00	70	20	32	88	02	04
17	57	20	35	49	8	53	36	08	71	19	32	89	01	04
18	57	4	36	48	32	54	35	26	72	18	32	90	00	00

METHODS *of finding the* LATITUDES *and* LONGITUDES *of* PLACES *from* CELESTIAL OBSERVATIONS.

WHAT is meant by latitude and longitude has already been ſufficiently explained, it remains that we ſhew the methods uſed for finding both by celeſtial obſervations.

I. *Of finding the Latitude.*

As the latitude of a place is an arch of the meridian intercepted between the zenith and the equinoctial, which is always equal to the height of the viſible pole above the horizon, it follows that if the meridional altitude, or its complement, the zenith diſtance, of any celeſtial object, whoſe place in the heavens is known, can be found, the latitude is eaſily diſcovered. Thus, if the heavenly object be in the equinoctial, the zenith diſtance will be equal to the latitude, which will be either north or ſouth, according as the obſerver is ſituated either to the northward or ſouthward of the object. But if the ſun or ſtar hath either north or ſouth declination, that is, if its apparent diurnal motion be either to the northward or ſouthward of the equinoctial, the declination muſt either be ſubtracted from, or added to, the zenith diſtance, according as the zenith diſtance and declination are of the ſame or different denominations.

1. If

1. If the zenith diſtance and declination have the ſame name, their difference will give the latitude. And if the declination is greater than the zenith diſtance, the latitude will be of the ſame name with the declination; but if the declination be leſs than the zenith diſtance, the latitude will be of a contrary name. If they are equal, the latitude will be 00 degrees, 00 minutes; that is, the place is ſituated under the equinoctial.

2. If the declination and zenith diſtance are of contrary names, that is, one north and the other ſouth, their ſum will be the latitude, and always of the ſame name with the declination.

In moſt books of aſtronomy and navigation are tables of the declination of the ſun, and principal fixed ſtars; and the meridian altitude of the ſun or ſtars may be eaſily found by a great variety of inſtruments.

3. When the object appears in the zenith, the latitude is equal to the declination, and alſo of the ſame name.

There are ſeveral other methods for finding the latitude, but the above will be ſufficient in this place, eſpecially as it is generally uſed.

II. *Of finding the Longitude.*

It has been already obſerved, that the difference of longitude between any two places might be determined, by knowing the difference between the times that any remarkable appearance in the heavens was ſeen in thoſe places. For ſince the ſun and fixed ſtars appear to move round the earth, or, which is the ſame thing, the earth revolves about its axis in twenty-four hours; it follows, that in every hour there paſſes over the meridian one twenty-fourth part of 360 degrees, or of the whole circumference of the equator, equal to fifteen degrees, and a proportionable part in a greater or leſs time.

The heavenly bodies afford frequent opportunities for making obſervations of this kind. For as theſe appearances conſiſt in the appulſes, that is, the approaches of the heavenly bodies to one another, or their paſſing by one another; and theſe appulſes, when they happen, are ſeen at the ſame inſtant of abſolute time in all parts of the earth where they are viſible; therefore, by knowing the relative times of the day when ſuch appearances are ſeen in two diſtant places, the difference between thoſe times is known, and conſequently the difference of longitude between thoſe places.

Several Ephemeres or Almanacks are annually publiſhed, in which the times when the eclipſes of the ſun, moon, and Jupiter's ſatellites; the riſing, ſetting, and ſouthing of the planets; the appulſus of the moon to certain fixed ſtars, and other celeſtial appearances, are determined with regard to ſome meridian. By the help of one of theſe books, and a careful obſervation of theſe appearances, the longitude may be determined.

Eclipſes of the moon, when they happen, afford one method of finding the difference of longitude. For as theſe eclipſes are occaſioned by an interpoſition of the earth between her and the ſun, and conſequently ſhe is immerſed in the earth's ſhadow, the moment any part of her body is deprived of the ſolar rays, it is viſible to all thoſe people who can ſee her, at the ſame inſtant of abſolute time. Hence by obſerving the beginning, middle, or end of an eclipſe of the moon, in any part of the world, noting the apparent time of theſe phenomena, and comparing it with the calculations of the ſame eclipſe, adapted to ſome other meridian, the difference of time, and conſequently the difference of longitude between thoſe two places, will be known.

Suppoſe

Suppoſe, for inſtance, the beginning of an eclipſe of the moon happened at London ſixteen minutes after two in the morning, but not till fifty-ſeven minutes and forty ſeconds after ſix in the morning at Boſton in New England; then will the difference of time be four hours, forty-one minutes, forty ſeconds, equal to ſeventy degrees twenty-five minutes, the difference of longitude; and becauſe the eclipſe happened later at Boſton than at London, the difference of longitude will be weſt. Conſequently, if the longitude be reckoned from the meridian of London, the longitude of Boſton will be ſeventy degrees twenty-five minutes weſt.

The longitude of places may alſo be obtained from the obſervations of ſolar eclipſes, but theſe being incumbered with the conſideration of parallaxes, are much leſs adapted to that purpoſe than thoſe of the moon.

But as the eclipſes of ſun and moon happen but ſeldom, another expedient offers, viz. the eclipſes of Jupiter's ſatellites. That planet has four moons or ſatellites, moving round him at different diſtances, and in different intervals of time; one or more of which is eclipſed almoſt every night: for they diſappear either in going behind Jupiter, or paſſing before him; and the inſtant of ſuch immerſions or emerſions may be ſeen by a refracting teleſcope of about eight or nine feet long, or a reflecting one of nine inches focal length.

The paſſage of the moon, or the ſuperior planets, over the meridian, affords another method of diſcovering the longitude: for by having the time in an ephemeris, when the moon or any of the planets paſs the meridian of ſome place, and finding by obſervation the time when the object paſſes the meridian of another place, the longitude will be determined; for the difference of time converted into degrees, &c. will give the difference of longitude.

There is ſtill another method, equally expeditious and certain, namely, the appulſes of the moon to certain fixed ſtars, and their occultations by the interpoſition of her body. For the moon finiſhing her revolution in the ſpace of twenty-ſeven days, ſeven hours, forty-three minutes, there are but few clear nights, when the moon does not paſs over, or ſo near ſome fixed ſtar, that the time of the neareſt approach, or the viſible conjunction, may be eaſily obſerved. And theſe, when compared with the viſible time computed to the meridian of ſome place, will ſhew the difference of longitude.

The laſt method we ſhall mention for finding the longitude, is by a time-keeper, a kind of clock or watch, which will always ſhew the true time under the meridian of ſome particular place: for by finding the time of the day at any other place, and comparing them with the time then ſhewn by ſuch a machine, the difference of longitude between thoſe places will be determined. The ingenious Mr. Harriſon, a few years ſince, completed ſuch a time-keeper, which was found upon trial to anſwer even beyond the moſt ſanguine expectations; and he accordingly received ten thouſand pounds from the government, as a reward for his diſcovery: but for ſome reaſons, not generally known, the time-keeper has been hitherto kept from the public.

Of the GLOBES, *and their* USE.

AN artificial Globe is a round body, whoſe ſurface is every where equally remote from the center. But by the globes here is meant two ſpherical bodies, whoſe convex ſurfaces are ſuppoſed to give a true repreſentation of the earth and heavens, as viſible by obſervation. One of theſe is called the terreſtrial, the other the celeſtial globe. On the convex ſurface of the terreſtrial globe, all the parts of the earth and ſea are delineated in their relative ſize, form, and ſituation.

On the ſurface of the celeſtial globe, the images of the ſeveral conſtellations, and the unformed ſtars, are delineated; and the relative magnitude and poſition which the ſtars are obſerved to have in the heavens, carefully preſerved.

In order to render theſe globular bodies more uſeful, they are fitted up with certain appurtenances, whereby a great variety of uſeful problems are ſolved in a very eaſy and expeditious manner.

The brazen meridian is that ring or hoop in which the globe hangs on its axis, which is repreſented by two wires paſſing through its poles. The circle is divided into four quarters of 90 degrees each; in one ſemi-circle the diviſions begin at each pole, and end at 90 degrees, where they meet. In the other ſemi-circle, the diviſions begin at the middle, and proceed thence towards each pole, where they end at 90 degrees. The graduated ſide of this brazen circle ſerves as a meridian for any point on the ſurface of the earth, the globe being turned about till that point comes under the circle.

The hour circle is a ſmall circle of braſs, divided into twenty-four hours, the quarters and half quarters. It is fixed on the brazen meridian, equally diſtant from the north end of the axis; to which is fixed an index, that points out the diviſions of the hour-circle as the globe is turned round its axis.

The horizon is repreſented by the upper ſurface of the wooden circular frame, encompaſſing the globe about its middle. On this wooden frame is a kind of perpetual calendar, contained in ſeveral concentric circles, the inner one is divided into four quarters of ninety degrees each. The next circle is divided into the twelve months, with the days in each according to the new ſtile, the next contains the twelve equal ſigns of the zodiac, each being divided into thirty degrees; the next the twelve months and days according to the old ſtile; and there is another circle containing the thirty-two points of the compaſs, with their halves and quarters. Although theſe circles are on all horizons, yet they are not always placed in the ſame diſpoſition.

The quadrant of altitude is a thin ſlip of braſs, one edge of which is graduated into ninety degrees and their quarters, equal to thoſe of the meridian. To one end of this is fixed a braſs nut and ſcrew, whereby it is put on, and faſtened to the meridian; if it be fixed in the zenith or pole of the horizon, then the graduated edge repreſents a vertical circle paſſing through any point.

Beſides theſe, there are ſeveral circles deſcribed on the ſurfaces of both globes, ſuch as the equinoctial, or ecliptic, circles of longitude and right aſcenſion, the tropics, polar circles, parallels of latitude and declination on the celeſtial globe; and on the terreſtrial, the equator, ecliptic, tropics, polar circles, parallels of latitude, hour-circles, or meridians to every fifteen degrees; and on ſome globes, the ſpiral rhumbs flowing from the ſeveral centers, called flies.

In uſing the Globes, keep the eaſt ſide of the horizon towards you (unleſs the problem requires the turning it) which ſide you may know by the word *Eaſt*, on the horizon; for then you have the graduated meridian towards you, the quadrant of altitude before you, and the globe divided exactly into two equal parts, by the graduated ſide of the meridian.

The following problems, as being moſt uſeful and entertaining, are ſelected from a great variety of others, which are eaſily ſolved with a globe fitted up with the aforementioned appurtenances.

I. *The latitude of a place being given, to rectify the globe for that place.*

Let it be required to rectify the globe for the latitude of Boſton, 42 degrees 25 minutes North.

Elevate

Elevate the north pole, till the horizon cuts the brazen meridian in 42° 25′ and the globe is then rectified for the latitude of Boſton. Bring Boſton to the meridian, and you will find it in the zenith, or directly on the top of the globe. And ſo of any other place.

II. *To find the latitude and longitude of any place on the terreſtrial globe.*

Bring the given place under that ſide of the graduated brazen meridian where the degrees begin at the equator, then the degree of the meridian over it ſhews the latitude; and the degree of the equator, under the meridian, ſhews the longitude.

Thus Boſton will be found to lie in 42° 25′, north latitude, and 70° 37′ weſt longitude, from Greenwich, or 4° 43′, eaſt longitude from Philadelphia.

III. *To find any place on the globe whoſe latitude and longitude are given.*

Bring the given longitude, found on the equator, to the meridian, and under the given latitude, found on the meridian, is the place ſought.

IV. *To find the diſtance and bearing of any two given places on the globe.*

Lay the graduated edge of the quadrant of altitude over both places, the beginning or 0 degree being on one of them, and the degrees between them ſhew their diſtance; theſe degrees multiplied by 60, give the geographical miles, and, by ſixty-nine and a half, give the diſtance in Engliſh miles nearly. Obſerve, while the quadrant lies in this poſition, what rhumb of the neareſt fly runs moſtly parallel to the edge of the quadrant, and that rhumb ſhews nearly the bearing required.

V. *To find the ſun's place in the ecliptic.*

Look the day of the month in the outer calendar upon the horizon, (if the globe was made before the alteration of the ſtile) and oppoſite to it, you will find the ſign and degree the ſun is in that day.—Thus on the 25th of March, the ſun's place is 4½ degrees in *Aries*.—Then look for that ſign and degree in the *ecliptic line* marked on the globe, and you find the ſun's place; there fix on a ſmall black patch, ſo is it prepared for the ſolution of the following problems.

Note. The earth's place is always in the ſign and degree oppoſite to the ſun; thus, when the ſun is 4½ degrees in Aries, the earth is 4½ degrees in Libra; and ſo of any other.

VI. *To find the ſun's declination, that is, his diſtance from the equinoctial line, either northward or ſouthward.*

Bring his place to the meridian; obſerve what degree of the meridian lies over it, and that is his declination. If the ſun lies on the *north ſide* the line, he is ſaid to have *north declination*; but if on the *ſouth ſide*, he has *ſouth declination*.

Thus on the 20th of April the ſun has 11½ degrees north declination, but on the 26th of October he has 12½ ſouth declination.

Note. The greateſt declination can never be more than 23½ degrees either north or ſouth; that being the diſtance of the tropics from the equinoctial, beyond which the ſun never goes.

VII. *To find where the ſun is vertical on any day; that is, to find over whoſe heads the ſun will paſs that day.*

Bring the ſun's place to the meridian, obſerve his declination, or hold a pen or wire over it, then turn the globe round, and all thoſe countries which paſs under the wire

over

will have the ſun over their heads that day at noon. Thus, on the 16th day of April, the inhabitants of the north part of Terra Firma, Porto Bello, Philippine Iſles, ſouthern parts of India, Abyſſinia, Ethiopia, and Guinea, have the ſun over their heads that day at twelve o'clock.

Note. This appearance can only happen to thoſe who live under the *torrid zone*, becauſe the ſun never ſtrays farther from the equinoctial, either northward or ſouthward, than the two tropics, from whence he returns again.

VIII. *To find over whoſe heads the ſun is at any hour, or to what place the ſun is vertical.*

Bring the place where you are (ſuppoſe at Boſton) to the meridian; ſet the index to the given hour by your watch; then turn the globe till the index points to the upper 12, or *noon*, look under the degree of declination for that day, and you find the place to which the ſun is vertical, or over whoſe head it is at that time.

Thus on the firſt day of May, at half paſt eight o'clock, A.M. I find the ſun is then vertical at Cape Verd, the weſtern point of Africa.

Note. If it be morning, the globe muſt be turned from eaſt to weſt. If in the afternoon, it muſt be turned from weſt to eaſt.

IX. *To find, at any hour of the day, what o'clock it is at any place in the world.*

Bring the place where you are to the braſs meridian; ſet the index to the hour by the watch, turn the globe till the place you are looking for comes under the meridian, and the index will point out the time required.

Thus when it is 10 o'clock in the morning, at Boſton, it is 20 minutes paſt 12 at Olinda, in Braſil, and 8 at Mexico, in New Spain; the former being 35 degrees W. Long. and the latter 100 degrees W. Long.

Note. By this problem you may likewiſe ſee, at one view, in diſtant countries, where the inhabitants are *riſing*—where *breakfaſting*—*dining*—*drinking tea*—where going to *aſſemblies*—and where *to bed.*

X. *To find at what hour the ſun riſes and ſets any day in the year; and alſo upon what point of the compaſs.*

Rectify the globe for the latitude of the place you are in; bring the ſun's place to the meridian, and ſet the index to 12; then turn the ſun's place to the eaſtern edge of the horizon, and the index will point out the hour of riſing; if you bring it to the weſtern edge of the horizon, the index will ſhew the hour of ſetting.

Thus on the 10th day of April, the ſun roſe at half an hour after 5 o'clock, and ſat half an hour before ſeven.

Note. In ſummer the ſun riſes and ſets a little to the *northward* of the eaſt and weſt points; and in winter a little to the *ſouthward* of them. If, therefore, when the ſun's place is brought to the eaſtern and weſtern edge of the horizon, you look on the inner circle, directly againſt the little patch, you will ſee the point of the compaſs upon which the ſun riſes and ſets that day.

XI. *To find the length of the day and night at any time of the year.*

Double the time of the ſun's riſing that day, and it gives the length of the night; double the time of his ſetting, and it gives the length of the day.

This problem ſhews how long the ſun ſtays with us any day, and how long he is abſent from us any night.

Thus on the 3d day of May, the ſun riſes at 5 o'clock, and ſets at ſeven; therefore the days are 14 hours long and the nights 10.

XII. *To find the length of the longeſt or ſhorteſt day at any place upon the earth.*

Rectify the globe for that place; if its latitude be north, bring the beginning of Cancer to the meridian; ſet the index to 12, then bring the ſame degree of Cancer to the eaſt part of the horizon, and the index will ſhew the time of the ſun's riſing.

If the ſame degree be brought to the weſtern ſide, the index will ſhew the time of his ſetting, which doubled (as in the laſt problem) will give the length of the longeſt day and ſhorteſt night.

If we bring the beginning of Capricorn to the meridian, and proceed in all reſpects as before, we ſhall have the length of the longeſt night and ſhorteſt day.

Thus in the Great Mogul's dominions, the longeſt day is 14 hours; and the ſhorteſt night 10 hours. The ſhorteſt day is 10 hours, and the longeſt night 14 hours.

At Peterſburgh, the ſeat of the Empreſs of Ruſſia, the longeſt day is about 19½ hours, and the ſhorteſt night 4½ hours. The ſhorteſt day 4½ hours, and the longeſt night 19½ hours.

Note. In all places near the *equator*, the ſun riſes and ſets at 6 o'clock the year round. From thence to the *polar circles*, the days increaſe as the latitude increaſes; ſo that at thoſe circles themſelves, the longeſt day is 24 hours, and the longeſt night juſt the ſame. From the *polar circles* to the *poles*, the days continue to lengthen into weeks and months; ſo that at the very pole the ſun ſhines for 6 months together in *ſummer*, and is abſent from it 6 months in *winter*.—*Note* alſo; That when it is *ſummer* with the *northern* inhabitants, it is *winter* with the *ſouthern*, and the contrary; and every part of the world partakes of an equal ſhare of light and darkneſs.

XIII. *To find all thoſe inhabitants to whom the ſun is this moment riſing or ſetting in their meridians or midnight.*

Find the ſun's place in the ecliptic, and raiſe the pole as much above the horizon as the ſun, that day, declines from the equator; then bring the place where the ſun is vertical at that hour, to the braſs meridian; ſo will it then be in the *zenith* or center of the horizon. Now ſee what countries lie on the weſtern edge of the horizon; for in them the ſun is *riſing*;—to thoſe on the eaſtern ſide he is *ſetting*;—to thoſe under the upper part of the meridian it is *noon day*;—and to thoſe under the lower part of it, it is *midnight*.

Thus at Charleſtown (Maſſ.) on the 10th of April, at 4 o'clock in the morning:

The ſun is about riſing at -	Braſil, S. America.
The ſun is ſetting at - -	New Guinea, the Japan Iſles and Kamtſchatka.
In the meridian, or noon, at -	Perſia, Auſtria, and Nova Zembla.
Midnight at	The Bay of Good Hope, in the vicinity of King George's Sound.

XIV. *To find the beginning and end of twilight.*

The *twilight* is that faint light, which opens the morning by little and little in the *eaſt*, before the ſun riſes; and gradually ſhuts in the evening in the *weſt*, after the ſun is ſet. It ariſes from the ſun's illuminating the upper part of the atmoſphere, and begins always when he approaches within 18 degrees of the eaſtern horizon, and ends when he deſcends 18 degrees below the weſtern; when dark night commences, and continues till another day dawn.

To

To find the *beginning of twilight*; rectify the globe; bring the ſun's place in the ecliptic to the meridian, and ſet the index to 12 at noon. Turn the degree of the ecliptic, which is oppoſite to the ſun's place till it is elevated 18 degrees in the quadrant of altitude above the horizon on the weſt, ſo will the index point the hour twilight begins.

To find when it ends—bring the ſame degree of the ecliptic to 18 degrees of the quadrant on the eaſt ſide, and the index will point the time twilight ends.

Thus on the 10th of April, at Boſton, twilight begins at 41 minutes after 3 in the morning, and ends 19 minutes after 8 in the evening. In London they have no total night, but a conſtant twilight, while the ſun is beneath the horizon for two months, from the 20th of May to the 20th of July.

Under the north pole, the twilight ceaſes when the ſun's declination is greater than 18 degrees ſouth, which is from the 13th of November to the 29th of January; ſo that notwithſtanding the ſun is abſent from that part of the world for half a year together, yet total darkneſs does not continue above 11 weeks; and beſides, the moon is above the horizon, at the poles, for a whole fortnight of every month through the year.

Note. The leſs the ſun's meridian altitude, the longer twilight continues; therefore, at the equator, twilight is the ſhorteſt.

XV. *To meaſure the diſtance from one town to another.*

Only take their diſtance with a pair of dividers, and apply it to the equinoctial, that will give the number of degrees between them, which being multiplied by 60, (the number of geographical or computed miles in one degree) gives the exact diſtance ſought:—Or, extend the quadrant of altitude from one place to another, that will ſhew the number of degrees in like manner, which may be reduced to miles as before.

Thus, the diſtance from London to Madrid is 11½ degrees. From Paris to Conſtantinople 19½ degrees. From Briſtol, in England, to Boſton, is 45 degrees, which multiplied by 69½, (the number of Engliſh miles in a degree) gives 3127½ miles.

Note. No place can be further from another than 180 degrees— that being half the circumference of the globe, and conſequently the greateſt diſtance.

XVI. *To find all thoſe countries in which an eclipſe of the ſun or moon will be viſible.*

1. *Of the Sun:* Find the place to which the ſun is vertical at the time of the eclipſe, by problemn 7th, and bring it to the *zenith*, or top of the globe; then, to all thoſe places above the horizon, if the *eclipſe* be *large*, will the ſun appear (part of it) viſibly obſcured.

2. *Of the Moon:* Bring the antipodes, or country oppoſite the place where the ſun is vertical at the time of the eclipſe, to the zenith or top of the globe, and then the eclipſe will be ſeen in all places above the horizon at that time.

XVII. *To calculate the circumference of the earth, that is, to find how many miles it is round.*

A line going round our globe is ſuppoſed by mathematicians to be divided into 360 equal parts, called degrees; and each of theſe parts are ſuppoſed to be divided into 60 equal parts, called minutes. Mr. Norwood found, by accurately meaſuring from London to York in 1635, that one degree upon the earth's ſurface contained 69½ ſtatute miles nearly; conſequently if the whole 360 degrees be multiplied by 69½ we ſhall find the circuit of the whole earth, in meaſured miles, to be 25,020. The accurate meaſure is 25,038.

Note. 60 computed miles make a degree, which makes the circumference to be but 21,600 geographical miles.

XVIII. *To calculate the diameter of the earth, i. e. to find how many miles it is through.*

It has been found by accurate menſuration, that if a circle meaſures 22 round, its diameter will be 7; i. e. the diameter is always a little leſs than *one third* part of the circumference; and this always holds true, be the circle bigger or leſs.*

Therefore if we multiply the circumference of the earth by 7, and divide the product by 22, the quotient will give the diameter, or thickneſs; and which, in this caſe, will be found to be 8018 meaſured, 6872 computed, miles. The diameter of the earth is commonly reckoned at 7,970 meaſured miles.

Note. From theſe dimenſions of the earth we may diſcover, 1ſt, that if there were a hole made through it, and a mill-ſtone let fall into this hole, and it ſhould deſcend at the rate of 1 mile a minute, it would be more than 3¾ days in coming to the center.

2d. If a man be deſirous of travelling round the earth, and ſhould go 20 miles each day, he would be 3 years and ½ in completing the journey.

3d. If a bird ſhould fly round the earth in 2 days, ſhe muſt go at the rate of 525 (meaſured) miles an hour.

XIX. *To find the ſuperficial content of the earth.*

Multiply the circumference by the diameter.

XX. *To find the ſolid content of the earth.*

Multiply the ſurface by *one ſixth* of the diameter and it will give the ſolidity. Or, multiply the cube of the diameter by 11, and the product divided by 21, will give the ſolidity.

After the ſame manner we may find the ſurface and ſolidity not only of the natural globe, but alſo of the whole body of the atmoſphere ſurrounding it, (provided it be always and every where of the ſame height) for having found the perpendicular height thereof by that common experiment of the aſcent of Mercury at the foot and top of a mountain, double the ſaid height and add the ſame diameter of the earth; then multiply the whole as a new diameter, by its proper circumference, and from the product ſubtract the ſolidity of the earth, it will leave that of the atmoſphere.

PROBLEMS *ſolved on the* CELESTIAL GLOBE.

The equator, ecliptic, tropics, polar circles, horizon and brazen meridians, are exactly alike on both globes. Both alſo are rectified in the ſame manner. N. B. The ſun's place for any day of the year, ſtands directly over that day on the horizon of the celeſtial globe, as it does on that day of the terreſtrial.

The *latitude* and *longitude* of the ſtars, or of all other celeſtial phenomena, are reckoned in a very different manner from the latitude and longitude of places on the earth; for all terreſtrial latitudes are reckoned from the equator; and longitudes from the meridian of ſome remarkable place, as, of London by the Britiſh, and of Paris by the French. But the aſtronomers of all nations agree in reckoning the latitudes of the moon, ſtars, planets, and comets, from the ecliptic; and their longitudes from the equinoctial colure, in that ſemicircle of it which cuts the ecliptic at the beginning of Aries; and thence eaſtward, quite round the ſame ſemi-circle again. Conſequently thoſe ſtars

**Note.* The circumference of a circle is to its diameter more exactly as 355 to 113.

which

which lie between the equinoctial and the northern half of the ecliptic, have north declination and ſouth latitude: thoſe which lie between the equinoctial and the ſouthern half of the ecliptic, have ſouth declination and north latitude; and all thoſe which lie between the tropics and poles, have their declinations and latitudes of the ſame denomination.

Prob. I. To find the right aſcenſion and declination of the ſun, or any fixed ſtar; bring the ſun's place in the ecliptic to the brazen meridian; then that degree in the equinoctial which is cut by the meridian, is the ſun's *right aſcenſion*; and that degree of the meridian which is over the ſun's place, is his *declination*. Bring any fixed ſtar to the meridian, and its right aſcenſion will be cut by the meridian in the equinoctial; and the degree of the meridian that ſtands over it is its declination. So that the right aſcenſion and declination on the celeſtial globe are found in the ſame manner as longitude and latitude on the terreſtrial.

II. To find the latitude and longitude of any ſtar. If the given ſtar be on the north ſide of the ecliptic, place the 90th degree of the quadrant of altitude on the north pole of the ecliptic, where the twelve ſemicircles meet, which divide the ecliptic into the twelve ſigns; but if the ſtar be on the ſouth ſide of the ecliptic, place the 90th degree of the quadrant on the ſouth pole of the ecliptic: Keeping the 90th degree of the quadrant on the proper pole, turn the quadrant about, until its graduated edge cuts the ſtar; then the number of degrees in the quadrant, between the ecliptic and the ſtar, is its latitude; and the degrees of the ecliptic, cut by the quadrant, is the ſtar's longitude, reckoned according to the ſign in which the quadrant then is.

III. To preſent the face of a ſtarry firmament, as ſeen from any given place of the earth, at any hour of the night.—Rectify the celeſtial globe for the given latitude, the zenith, and ſun's place, in every reſpect, as taught by the problem for the terreſtrial; and turn it about, until the index points to the given hour; then the upper hemiſphere of the globe will repreſent the viſible half of the heaven for that time; all the ſtars upon the globe being then in ſuch ſituations, as exactly correſpond to thoſe in the heaven. And if the globe be placed duly north and ſouth, by means of a ſmall ſea compaſs, every ſtar in the globe will point to the like ſtar in the heaven: by which means, the conſtellations and remarkable ſtars may be eaſily known. All thoſe ſtars which are in the eaſtern ſide of the horizon, are then riſing in the eaſtern ſide of the heaven; all in the weſtern, are ſetting in the weſtern ſide; and all thoſe under the upper part of the brazen meridian, between the ſouth point of the horizon and the north pole, are at their greateſt altitude, if the latitude of the place be north; but if the latitude be ſouth, thoſe ſtars which lie under the upper part of the meridian, between the north point of the horizon and the ſouth pole, are at their greateſt altitude.

IV. The latitude of the place and day of the month being given to find the time when any known ſtar will riſe, or be upon the meridian, or ſet.

Having rectified the globe, turn it about until the given ſtar comes to the eaſtern ſide of the horizon, and the index will ſhow the time of the ſtar's riſing; then turn the globe weſtward, and when the ſtar comes to the brazen meridian, the index will ſhow the time of the ſtar's coming to the meridian of your place; laſtly, turn on, until the ſtar comes to the weſtern ſide of the horizon, and the index will ſhow the time of the ſtar's ſetting. N. B. In northern latitudes thoſe ſtars which are leſs diſtant from the north pole than the quantity of its elevation above the north point of the horizon, never ſet; and thoſe which are leſs diſtant from the ſouth pole than the number degrees by

which

which it is depreſſed below the horizon, never riſe: And *vice verſa* in ſouthern latitudes.

V. To find at what time of the year a given ſtar will be upon the meridian, at a given hour of the night. Bring the given ſtar to the upper ſemicircle of the braſs meridian, and ſet the index to the given hour; then turn the globe, until the index points to XII at noon, and the upper ſemicircle of the meridian will then cut the ſun's place, anſwerable to the day of the year ſought; which day may be eaſily found againſt the like place of the ſun among the ſigns on the wooden horizon.

The different MANNER *by which ſome* NATIONS *and* PEOPLE *reckon* TIME.

THE *Babylonians*, *Perſians*, and *Syrians*, and the inhabitants of ſome part of *Germany*, begin their days at *ſun-riſing*.

The (ancient) *Jews*, *Athenians*, and *Italians*, reckon from *ſun ſetting*.

The *Egyptians*, like the *Engliſh*, &c. begin at *midnight*.

The *aſtronomers* and *ſeamen*, begin the day at noon, and reckon on 24 hours to the next day at noon. And according to this mode of reckoning are all the calculations of the *ſun*, *moon*, and *planets*, made and inſerted in the common almanacks.

GEOGRAPHICAL THEOREMS, *or* PROPOSITIONS.

THESE propoſitions, which are deducible from the nature of the foregoing work, the learner will find to be ſo many *real truths*, if he properly applies and contemplates them upon the globe.

I. Places lying under the equator have no latitude; becauſe the reckoning of latitude begins at the equator.

II. Under the *poles* of the world the latitude is greateſt, or juſt 90 degrees; becauſe the reckoning of latitude ends at the poles.

III. Going from the *equator* towards the *poles*, the latitude increaſes; but going towards the *equator*, the latitude diminiſhes.

IV. The *latitude* of any place is equal to the height of the pole in degrees above the horizon.

V. Places lying under that meridian, which is accounted the *firſt*, have *no longitude*, becauſe the reckoning of longitude begins at that meridian.

VI. Thoſe places have the greateſt longitude which lie under the meridian, oppoſite to that where longitude begins.

VII. The longitude of any place cannot be greater than 180 degrees, eaſtward or weſtward; becauſe that brings you to the meridian oppoſite to that where longitude began to be counted from.

VIII. No two places can be diſtant from one another above 180 degrees; becauſe 180 degrees is half the circumference of a great circle on the globe.

IX. All the inhabitants of the earth enjoy the *ſun's light* an equal length of time, and have him equally abſent from them.

X. Under the *equinoctial*, the days and nights are always equal to twelve hours; but not exactly ſo in any other place.

XI. In all places between the equator and the poles, the days and nights are never equal but at the time of the *equinoxes*, in March and September.

XII. The difference between the lengths of the days and nights in any place on either *ſide* the *equator*, is greater in proportion as the latitude of that place is greater.

XIII. In places exactly under the *polar circles*, the ſun appears, when at the *ſummer tropic*, one whole day without ſetting; and diſappears one whole day when in the *winter tropic*: At other times it daily riſes and ſets as elſewhere.

XIV. In all places of the *frigid zones*, the ſun appears every year without ſetting for a certain number of days; and diſappears for about the ſame ſpace of time. And the nearer to, or further from the pole, thoſe places are, the longer or ſhorter is his appearance in, or abſence from them.

XV. To all places under the ſame ſemicircle of the meridian, whether on the north or ſouth ſide of the equator, it is *noon* or *midnight*, or any other hour of the day or night at the ſame time preciſely.

XVI. Places lying eaſtward of any other place, have their *morning*, *noon*, and *evening* hours earlier than at that place, by one hour for every 15 degrees it lies eaſtward of it.

XVII. Places lying weſtward of any other place have their *morning*, *noon*, and *evening* hours later than at that place, by one hour for every 15 degrees it lies weſtward of it.

XVIII. A perſon in going *eaſtward* quite round the globe, will have gained one day in his reckoning of time, above the account kept at the place he departed from: But had his circuit been made *weſtward*, he would have been one day behind the account kept at that place.

XIX. Two perſons ſetting out at the ſame time from a place to make the circuit of the globe, one going *eaſtward* the other *weſtward*, will on their return, differ in their account of time by two entire days.

XX. To all places within the *torrid zone*, the ſun is *vertical*, i. e. comes over the heads of the inhabitants, *twice* a year. To thoſe under the *tropics*, once: But it is never vertical to thoſe in the *temperate* or *frigid zones*.

XXI. People who live to the *north* of the torrid zone, ſee the ſun due *ſouth* at noon; and thoſe who live to the *ſouth* of the torrid zone, ſee the ſun due *north* at noon.

XXII. Thoſe who ſee the ſun to the *northward* have their ſhadows projected *ſouthward*; but when they ſee the ſun to the *ſouthward*, their ſhadows are projected *northward*.

XXIII. The nearer the ſun is to the *zenith* of any perſon, the ſhorter is the ſhadow at noon; but the further from the *zenith* at noon, the longer is the ſhadow: The ſhadow is always oppoſite to the ſun; and thoſe who have the ſun in their zenith, i. e. directly over their heads, have no [length of] ſhadow at all.

XXIV. In all places ſituated in a *parallel ſphere*, i. e. at or very near the *poles*, the ſun's daily motion runs always *parallel*, or nearly ſo, to the reſpective horizon of ſuch place.

XXV. In all places ſituated in a *right ſphere*, i. e. at or near the equator, the ſun's daily motion is *perpendicular*, or nearly ſo, to the horizon of ſuch places.

XXVI. In all places ſituated in an *oblique ſphere*, i. e. lying between the equator and the poles, the circle of the ſun's daily motion is always oblique unto, or cuts the horizon of ſuch place at unequal angles.

XXVII. On the days of the *equinoxes* only, that is, about the 20th of March, and 23d of September, the ſun riſes exactly in the *eaſt* point of the horizon, and ſets in the *weſt* point, to every place upon earth.

XXVIII. To places in *north latitude*, the ſun riſes to the *northward* of the *eaſt*, and ſets to the *northward* of the *weſt*, from the *vernal* to the *autumnal* equinox; and riſes to the

the *ſouthward* of the *eaſt*, and ſets to the *ſouthward* of the *weſt*, from the time of the *autumnal equinox* to that of the *vernal*.

Laſtly. In all places of the torrid zone, the morning and evening twilight is leaſt; in the two frigid zones it is greateſt; and in the temperate zones the twilight is a medium between the other two.

Of MAPS *and their* USE.

A MAP is the repreſentation of ſome part of the earth's ſurface delineated on a plane according to the laws of projection; for as the earth is of a globular form, no part of its ſpherical ſurface can be accurately exhibited on a plane.

Maps are either general or particular: General maps are ſuch as give us a view of an entire hemiſphere or half of the globe, and are projected upon the plane of ſome great circle, which terminates the projected hemiſphere, and divides it from the other half of the globe, as the meridian, equator, or the horizon of ſome place; and from this circle the projection is ſaid to be meridional, equatorial, or horizontal.

Particular maps are ſuch as exhibit a part leſs than a hemiſphere; ſuch as maps of Europe, Aſia, Africa, North America, and South America; or of particular kingdoms, provinces, countries, or leſſer diſtricts.

There are two methods of projecting the circles in general maps, viz. ſtereographic, and orthographic. In order to form an adequate idea of the conſtruction of maps, we may imagine the globe on which the circles are delineated, to be of thin glaſs, and that half of it is viewed at the ſame time. In taking this view, the eye may be conceived to be placed at different diſtances from the hemiſphere to be projected. If the eye be conceived to be placed in ſome point of the ſurface of the ſphere to view the concave of the oppoſite hemiſphere, it is called the ſtereographic projection: If the eye be ſuppoſed to be placed at an infinite diſtance, it is called the orthographic projection.

In the ſtereographic projection the parts about the middle are contracted, being much leſs than thoſe nearer the circumference.

All the maps in this treatiſe, and indeed thoſe in almoſt all others, are laid down according to the laws of ſtereographic projection.

Maps differ from the globe in the ſame manner as a picture does from a ſtatue. The globe truly repreſents the earth, but a map no more than a plane ſurface can repreſent one that is ſpherical. But although the earth can never be exhibited exactly by one map, yet by means of ſeveral of them, each containing about ten or twenty degrees of latitude, the repreſentation will not fall very much ſhort of the globe for exactneſs; becauſe ſuch maps, if joined together, would form a ſpherical convex nearly as round as the globe itſelf.

Cardinal Points.] The north is conſidered as the upper part of the map; the ſouth is at the bottom, oppoſite to the north; the eaſt is on the right hand, the face being turned to the north; and the weſt on the left hand, oppoſite to the eaſt. From the top to the bottom are drawn meridians, or *lines of longitude*; and from ſide to ſide, *parallels of latitude*. The outermoſt of the meridians and parallels are marked with degrees of latitude or longitude, by means of which, and the ſcale of miles, which is commonly placed in the corner of the map, the ſituation, diſtances, &c. of places may be found, as on the artificial globe. Thus to find the diſtance of two places, ſuppoſe Philadelphia and Boſton, by the map, we have only to meaſure the ſpace between them with the compaſſes, or a bit of thread, and to apply this diſtance to the ſcale of miles, which

which ſhews that Boſton is 286 miles diſtant from Philadelphia. If the places lie directly north or ſouth, eaſt or weſt, from one another, we have only to obſerve the degrees on the meridians and parallels, and by turning theſe into miles, we obtain the diſtance without meaſuring. Rivers are deſcribed in maps by blank lines, and are wider towards the mouth than towards the head or ſpring. Mountains are ſketched on maps as on a picture. Foreſts and woods are repreſented by a kind of ſhrub; bogs and moraſſes, by ſhades; ſands and ſhallows are deſcribed by ſmall dots; and roads uſually by double lines. Near harbours, the depth of the water is expreſſed by figures repreſenting fathoms.

When any parts of the heaven, or earth, are ſaid to be on the right or left, we are to underſtand the expreſſion differently according to the profeſſion of the perſon who makes uſe of it; becauſe, according to that, his face is ſuppoſed to be turned towards a certain quarter. A geographer is ſuppoſed to ſtand with his face to the north, becauſe the northern part of the world is beſt known. An aſtronomer looks towards the ſouth, to obſerve the celeſtial bodies as they come to the meridian. The ancient augurs in obſerving the flight of birds, looked towards the eaſt; while the poets look weſt, towards the *Fortunate iſles*. In books of geography, therefore, by the right hand we muſt underſtand the eaſt; in thoſe of aſtronomy, the weſt; in ſuch as relate to augury, the ſouth; and in the writings of poets, the north.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS *concerning* HEAT *and* COLD.*

THAT the preſence of the ſun is the principal ſource of heat, as well as of light, and its abſence of cold, is too obvious ever to have been doubted.

The next ſource of heat is the condenſation of vapour. It is well known that vapour contains a quantity of the matter of heat which produces no other effect but that of making it aſſume an aerial expanded ſtate, until the vapour is condenſed into a liquid; but during this condenſation a quantity of ſenſible heat is ſet looſe, which warms the ſurrounding atmoſphere. This condenſation is frequently cauſed by the attraction of an electrical cloud, and hence the ſultrineſs we frequently experience before rain.

As the earth is the chief ſource of heat in the atmoſphere that ſurrounds it, diſtance from the earth is the ſource of cold; or, in other words, the greateſt cold muſt prevail in the higheſt regions of the atmoſphere, and ſo much the greater, as clear unclouded air ſeems to receive no heat whatſoever from the rays of the ſun, whether direct or reflected. Thus if the focus of the moſt powerful burning-glaſs be directed on mere air, it does not produce the ſmalleſt degree of heat; and the reaſon is, becauſe the air being tranſparent, affords a free paſſage to the rays of light, which act as fire only when confined within the minuteſt interſtices of bodies; as it is then, and then only, that they contract the attractive power of the particles of matter; in which action and reaction heat conſiſts.

Hence the higheſt mountains, even under the equator, are, during the whole year, covered with ſnow. Mr. Bouguer found the cold of Pinchinca, one of the Cordeliers, immediately under the line, to extend from 7 to 9 degrees under the freezing point, every morning before ſunriſe; and hence at a certain height, which varies in almoſt every latitude, it conſtantly freezes at night, in every ſeaſon, though in the warm climates it thaws to ſome degree the next day: This height he calls the *lower term of congelation*: Between the tropics he places it at the height of 15,577 feet.

* Extracted from Kirwan's ingenious work, intitled "An eſtimate of the temperature of different latitudes," lately publiſhed.

At ſtill greater heights it never freezes, not becauſe the cold decreaſes, but becauſe vapours do not aſcend ſo high; this height Mr. Bouguer calls the *upper term of congelation*, and under the equator he fixes it at the height of 28,000 feet, at moſt. Under the equator, there being very little variety in the weather, the height of both terms is nearly conſtant; under other latitudes this height is variable, both in ſummer and winter, according to the degree of heat which prevails on the ſurface of the earth.

The next general ſource of cold is, *evaporation*; for the attraction of the particles of liquids decreaſes as their points of contact diminiſh, and thereby their capacity for receiving the matter of heat (which is the ſame as that of light) increaſes; by this increaſed capacity, the matter of heat or fire contained in the neighbouring bodies, which, like all other fluids, flows where it finds leaſt reſiſtance, is determined to flow towards the vapour; and conſequently thoſe bodies are cooled, though the vapour is not heated; becauſe the re-action of its particles is barely equal to that which it had before its capacity was increaſed.*.

With reſpect to evaporation, we may remark, 1ſt. That in our climates, it is about four times as great from the vernal to the autumnal equinox, as from the autumnal to the vernal.

2dly. The degree of cold produced by evaporation, is much greater when the air is warmer than the evaporating ſurface, than that which is produced when the evaporating ſurface is the warmer of the two. Hence, warm winds, as the Sirocco, Harmatan, &c. are more deſiccative than cold winds.

3dly. That it is greatly increaſed by a current of air or wind flowing over the evaporating ſurface, not only becauſe the evaporating ſurface is thereby increaſed, but alſo becauſe unſaturated air is conſtantly brought into contact with it. Hence it has been remarked that calm days are the hotteſt.

4thly. That tracts of land covered with trees or vegetables, emit more vapour than the ſame ſpace covered with water, as Dr. Hales has obſerved. Mr. Williams found this quantity to amount to one third more.

Laſtly. We may obſerve, that the heat and cold of different countries are tranſmitted from one to the other by the medium of winds. How the air of a cold country is determined to flow towards a warmer, is eaſily underſtood; but by what means warm air is determined to flow towards cold countries, is ſomewhat difficult to explain. I ſhall here mention two cauſes that occur to me, wiſhing for a fuller explanation from others.

1ſt. If from any tract in the upper regions of the atmoſphere, two currents of air flow in oppoſite directions, as ſometimes happens, the inferior air being leſs compreſſed will become ſpecifically lighter; and currents of air in oppoſite directions to the upper currents will take place.

2dly. I conceive that when eaſterly or weſterly winds meet with unequal force, one of them may be reflected northwards.

From what has been already ſaid, it follows, that ſome ſituations are better fitted to receive or communicate heat than other ſituations; thus high and mountainous ſituations being nearer to the ſource of cold, muſt be colder than lower ſituations; and countries covered with woods, as they prevent the acceſs of the ſun's rays to the earth, or to the heaps of ſnow which they may conceal, and preſent more numerous evaporating ſurfaces, muſt be colder than open countries, though ſituated in the ſame latitude;

* Heat is obſerved to diminiſh in aſcending into the atmoſphere, nearly in an arithmetical progreſſion.

and

and ſince all tracts of land preſent infinite varieties of ſituations, uniform reſults cannot here be expected.

With reſpect to the annual temperature, we may remark, 1ſt. That within 10 degrees of the poles the temperatures differ very little; neither do they differ much within 10 degrees of the equator.

2d. The temperatures of different years differ very little near the equator, but they differ more and more, as the latitudes approach the poles.

3d. It ſcarce ever freezes in latitudes under 35°, unleſs in very elevated ſituations, and it ſcarce ever hails in latitudes higher than 60°.

4th. Between latitudes 35° and 60°, in places adjacent to the ſea, it generally thaws when the ſun's altitude is 40°, and ſeldom begins to freeze, until the ſun's meridian altitude is below 40°.

Hence we may obſerve, that the month of January is the coldeſt in every latitude.

2d. That July is the warmeſt month in all latitudes above 48°; but in lower latitudes, Auguſt is generally the warmeſt.

3d. That December and January, and alſo June and July, differ but little. In latitudes above 30°, the months of Auguſt, September, October and November, differ more from each other, than thoſe of February, March, April and May. In latitudes under 30°, the difference is not ſo great. The temperature of April approaches more, every where, to the annual temperature, than that of any other month; whence we may infer, that the effects of natural cauſes, that operate gradually over a large extent, do not arrive at their *maximum*, until the activity of the cauſes begins to diminiſh; this appears alſo in the operation of the moon on ſeas, which produces tides; but after theſe effects have arrived at their *maximum*, the decrements are more rapid than the increments originally were, during the progreſs to that *maximum*.

4th. That the differences between the hotteſt and coldeſt months, within 20° of the equator, are inconſiderable, except in ſome peculiar ſituations; but that they increaſe in proportion as we recede from the equator.

5th. That in the higheſt latitudes, we often meet with a heat of 75 or 80 degrees; and particularly in latitudes 59 and 60, the heat of July is frequently greater than in latitude 51°.

6th. That every habitable latitude enjoys a heat of 60 degrees at leaſt, for two months; which heat ſeems neceſſary for the growth and maturity of corn. The quickneſs of vegetation in the higher latitudes, proceeds from the duration of the ſun over the horizon. Rain is little wanted, as the earth is ſufficiently moiſtened by the liqueſaction of the ſnow that covers it during the winter; in all this we cannot ſufficiently admire the wiſe diſpoſition of Providence.

7th. It is owing to the ſame provident hand, that the globe of the earth is interſected with ſeas and mountains, in a manner, that on its firſt appearance, ſeem altogether irregular and fortuitous; preſenting to the eye of ignorance, the view of an immenſe ruin; but when the effects of theſe ſeeming irregularities on the face of the globe are carefully inſpected, they are found moſt beneficial and even neceſſary to the welfare of its inhabitants; for, to ſay nothing of the advantages of trade and commerce, which could not exiſt without theſe ſeas, it is by their vicinity, that the cold of the higher latitudes is moderated, and the heat of the lower. It is by want of ſeas that the interior parts of Aſia, as Siberia and Great Tartary, as well as thoſe of Africa, are rendered almoſt uninhabitable; a circumſtance which furniſhes a ſtrong prejudice againſt the opinion of thoſe, who think theſe countries were the original habitations of man. In the ſame

manner, mountains are neceſſary; not only as the reſervoirs of rivers, but as a defence againſt the violence of heat, in the warm latitudes: without the Alps, Pyrenees, Apennine, the mountains of Dauphine and Auvergne, &c. Italy, Spain, and France, would be deprived of the mild temperature they at preſent enjoy. Without the Balgate hills, or Indian Appennine, India would have been a deſert. Hence Jamaica, St. Domingo, Sumatra, and moſt other intertropical iſlands, are furniſhed with mountains, from which the breezes proceed that refreſh them.

A view of the ANNUAL TEMPERATURE *of different places, according to the order of their* LATITUDES.

	N. Lat. deg. m.	Longitude. deg. m.	Mean annual heat.
Wadſo, in Lapland	70, 5		30°
Abo	60, 27	22, 18 E.	40.
Peterſburgh	59, 56	30, 24 E.	38, 8
Upſal	59, 51	17, 47 E.	41, 88
Stockholm	59, 20	18. E.	42, 39
Solyſkamki	59.	54. E.	36, 2
Edinburgh	55, 57	3. W.	47, 7
Francker	53.	5, 42 E.	52, 6
Berlin	52, 32	13, 31 E.	49.
Lyndon, in Rutland	52, 30	0. 3 W.	48, 3
Leyden	52, 10	4, 32 E.	52, 25
London	51, 31		51, 9
Dunkirk	51, 2	2, 7 E.	54, 9
Manheim	49, 27	9, 2 E.	51, 5
Rouen	49, 26	1. W.	51.
Ratiſbon	48, 56	12, 5 E.	49, 35
Paris	48, 50	2, 25 E.	52.
Troyes, in Champaigne	48, 18	4, 10 E.	53, 17
Vienna	48, 12	16, 22 E.	51, 53
Dijon	47, 19	4, 57 E.	52, 8
Nantes	47, 13	1, 28 E.	55, 53
Poitiers	46, 39	0, 30 E.	53, 8
Lauſanne	46, 31	6, 50 E.	48, 87
Padua	45, 23	12. E.	52, 2
Rhodez, in Guienne	45, 21	2, 39 E.	52, 9
Bourdeaux	44, 50	0, 36 W.	57, 6
Montpelier	43, 36	3, 73 E.	60, 87
Marſeillies	43, 19	5, 27 E.	61, 8
Mont Louis, in Rouſillon	42.	2, 40 E.	44, 5
Cambridge, in New England	42, 25	71. W.	50, 3
Philadelphia	39, 56	75, 9 W.	52, 5
Pekin	39, 54	116, 29 W.	55, 5
Algiers	36, 49	2, 17 E.	72.
Grand Cairo	30.	31, 23 E.	73.
Canton	23.	133. E.	75, 14
Tivoli, in St. Domingo	19.		74.
Spaniſhtown, in Jamaica	18, 15	76, 38 W.	81.

Manilla

	N. Lat. deg. m.	Longitude. deg. m.	Mean annual heat.
Manilla - - - -	14, 36	120, 58 E.	78, 4
Fort St. George - - -	13.	87. E.	81, 3
Pondicherry - - -	12.	67. E.	88.
	South Latitude.		
Falkland Iſlands - - -	51.	66. W.	47, 4
Quito - - - -	0, 13	77, 50 W.	62.

THEORY *of the* WINDS.

AIR is a fine inviſible fluid, ſurrounding the globe of the earth, and extending to ſome miles above its ſurface: and that collection of it, together with the bodies it contains, circumſcribing the earth, is called the atmoſphere.

Few natural bodies have been the ſubject of more experiments than the air; and from theſe it appears, that it is both heavy and elaſtic. By its gravity it is capable of ſupporting all lighter bodies, as ſmoke, vapours, fumes, odours, &c. And by its elasticity, a ſmall volume of air is capable of expanding itſelf in ſuch a manner as to fill a very large ſpace, and alſo of being compreſſed into a much ſmaller compaſs.—Cold has the property of compreſſing air, and heat of expanding it. But as ſoon as the expanſion or compreſſion is taken away, it will return to its natural ſtate. Hence, if an alteration be made in any part of the atmoſphere, either by heat or cold, the neighbouring parts will be put into commotion, by the effort which the air always makes to recover its former ſtate. Wind is nothing more than a ſtream or current of air capable of very different degrees of velocity, and generally blowing from one point of the horizon to its oppoſite part. The horizon, like all other great circles of the ſphere, is divided into 360 degrees: but as theſe diviſions are too minute for common uſe, it is alſo divided into thirty two equal parts, called rhumbs, or points of the compaſs.

Winds are either conſtant or variable, general or particular. Conſtant winds are ſuch as always blow the ſame way, at leaſt for a conſiderable length of time. Variable winds, are ſuch as frequently ſhift, or change from one point of the compaſs to another. A general wind, is that which blows the ſame way over a large tract of the earth the greater part of the year. A particular wind is that which blows in any particular place, ſometimes one way and ſometimes another.

The trade wind is a current of air blowing continually from the eaſt, on the Atlantic and Pacific ocean, between thirty degrees north and thirty degrees ſouth latitude.

The cauſe of this conſtant wind is the action of the ſun in his apparent motion from eaſt to weſt. For the air immediately under the ſun being more heated, and conſequently more expanded in that part than in any other, the air to the eaſtward is conſtantly ruſhing towards the weſt, in order to reſtore the equilibrium, or natural ſtate of the atmoſphere; and by that means occaſions a continual current of air from the eaſtward within thoſe limits.

But the trade-winds near the northern boundary, blow between the north and eaſt; and near the ſouthern, between the ſouth and eaſt. For as the air is expanded by the heat of the ſun near the equator, therefore the air from the northward and ſouthward will both flow towards the equator, to reſtore the equilibrium. But theſe motions from the north and ſouth being compounded with the foregoing eaſterly motion, will produce the motions obſerved near the above limits, between the north and eaſt, and between the ſouth and weſt.

It muſt however be obſerved, that theſe general currents of the wind are diſturbed on the continents and near the coaſt. Sometimes the nature of the ſoil increaſes or leſſens the heat in the atmoſphere; and ſometimes chains of mountains form a kind of eddy near their weſtern ſides; hence the motions of the winds may be different and even contrary to the general motions above obſerved.

In ſome parts of the Indian Ocean another ſpecies of trade-winds, called *monſoons*, prevail. Theſe blow ſix months one way, and ſix months the contrary way.

Theſe phenomena flow from the ſame cauſe. For the air that is cool and denſe, muſt force the rarefied air in a continual ſtream upwards, where it muſt ſpread itſelf to preſerve an equilibrium; conſequently the upper courſe or current of the air will be contrary to the under current; for the under current muſt move from thoſe parts where the greateſt heat is; and ſo by a kind of circulation, the north-eaſt trade-wind below will be attended with a ſouth-weſt wind above; and a ſouth-eaſt below with a north-weſt above. Experience has ſufficiently confirmed the truth of this propoſition; the ſeamen always finding that as ſoon as they leave the trade-winds, they immediately find a wind blowing in an oppoſite direction.

Between the fourth and tenth degrees of north latitude, and between the longitudes of Cape Verd and the eaſternmoſt of the Cape de Verd Iſlands, is a tract of ſea which ſeems to be condemned to perpetual calms, attended with dreadful thunder and lightnings, and ſuch frequent rains, that it has acquired the name of the *Rains*. This phenomenon ſeems to be cauſed by the great rarefaction of the air on the neighbouring coaſt, which cauſing a perpetual current of air to ſet in from the weſtward, and this current meeting here with the general trade-wind, the two currents balance each other, and cauſe a general calm; while the vapours carried thither by each wind meeting and condenſing, occaſion theſe frequent deluges of rain.

THEORY *of the* TIDES.

BY the word tide is underſtood that motion of the water in the ſeas and rivers by which they regularly riſe and fall. The phenomena of the tides occaſioned a variety of opinions among the ancient philoſophers; but the true cauſe continued unknown till the latter end of the laſt century, when it was diſcovered by the illuſtrious Sir Iſaac Newton, who deduced it from the following obſervations:

One of the inherent properties of matter is gravitation or attraction. It is owing to this property, that heavy bodies thrown up into the air fall down to the ſurface of the earth in perpendicular directions. And as all lines drawn from the center of a ſphere to its circumference are perpendicular to its ſurface, therefore all heavy bodies fall in lines tending to the center. This property of gravitation or attraction is found to be univerſally diffuſed through this ſolar ſyſtem, and probably through the whole univerſe. The heavenly bodies are governed by this great law of nature. The earth and moon gravitate towards, or are attracted by the ſun. Experience has alſo demonſtrated, that the force of attraction exerted by theſe bodies on one another, is leſs and leſs, as they are farther removed aſunder in proportion to the ſquares of thoſe diſtances.

From theſe general principles it follows, that the gravitation of bodies towards the center of the earth will be leſs on thoſe parts of its ſurface that are oppoſite to the ſun and moon than in the others: and this defect of gravitation in particular parts, is the true cauſe of the ebbing and flowing of the tide. For it is evident, that if no ſuch forces were exerted by the ſun and moon, the oceans, being equally attracted towards the earth's center on all ſides by the force of gravity, would continue in a ſtate of perfect ſtagnation. But as theſe forces are really exerted, the waters in the oceans muſt riſe higher

higher in thoſe places where the ſun and moon diminiſh their gravity; or where the attraction of the ſun and moon is greateſt.

This being an undeniable fact, it follows, that as the force of gravity muſt be diminiſhed moſt in thoſe places of the earth to which the moon is neareſt, viz. in the zenith; therefore the waters in ſuch places will riſe higher, and conſequently it will be full ſea or flood in ſuch places.

From the ſame principles it follows, that the parts of the earth directly under the moon in the zenith, and thoſe in the nadir, or thoſe diametrically oppoſite, will have the flood or high water at the ſame time.

But as the waters in the zenith and nadir riſe at the ſame time, therefore the waters in their neighbourhood will preſs towards theſe places to maintain the equilibrium; and, to ſupply the places of theſe, others will move the ſame way, and ſo on to places ninety degrees diſtant from the ſaid zenith and nadir; conſequently in thoſe places where the moon appears in the horizon, the waters will have more liberty to deſcend towards the center; and therefore in thoſe places, the waters will be loweſt.

From what has been ſaid it follows, that if the ſurface of the earth was entirely covered with water, the ocean muſt have a prolate ſpheroidical figure, the longer diameter paſſing through the place where the moon is vertical, and the ſhorter where ſhe appears in the horizon. And as the moon apparently ſhifts her place from eaſt to weſt in moving round the earth every day, the longer diameter of the ſpheroid following her motion, there muſt be two floods and two ebbs in the length of a lunar day, or about twenty-four hours, fifty minutes.

Hence we ſee the reaſon why the time of high-water is about fifty minutes later every day. That is, if it be high-water at eleven to-day, it will not be high-water till near fifty minutes after eleven to-morrow.

The tides are higher than ordinary twice every month, viz. about the time of the new and full moon; and theſe are called ſpring tides: becauſe at theſe times both the ſun and moon concur, or draw in the ſame right line; and conſequently the tides muſt be more elevated. When the two luminaries are in conjunction, or when the ſun and moon are on the ſame ſide of the earth, they both conſpire to raiſe the water in the zenith, and conſequently in the nadir: and when the ſun and moon are in oppoſition, that is, when the earth is between them, while one makes high-water in the zenith and nadir, the other does the ſame in the nadir and zenith.

The tides are leſs than ordinary twice every month; that is, about the times of the firſt and laſt quarters of the moon; and theſe are called neap-tides.

For in the quarters of the moon, the ſun raiſes the water where the moon depreſſes it; and depreſſes it where the moon raiſes the water; the tides are made therefore by the difference of their actions.

It is however neceſſary to be obſerved, that the ſpring-tides happen not preciſely at the new and full moon, but a day or two after, when the attractions of the ſun and moon have acted in the ſame direction for a conſiderable time. In the ſame manner the neap-tides happen a day or two after the quarters, when the force of the moon's attraction has been leſſened by that of the ſun's for ſeveral days together.

The ſpring tides are greater about the time of the equinoxes, than at other times of the year; and the neap-tides are then leſs.

Becauſe the longer diameter of the ſpheroid, or the two oppoſite floods, will at that time be in the earth's equator; and conſequently will deſcribe a great circle of the earth, by whoſe diurnal rotation thoſe floods will move ſwifter, deſcribing a great circle in the ſame time they uſed to deſcribe a leſſer circle parallel to the equator, and conſe-

quently the waters being impelled more forcibly againſt the ſhores, they riſe higher.

Such would be the phenomena of the tides if the whole ſurface of the earth was entirely covered with water; but as this is not the caſe, there being beſides the continents, a multitude of iſlands, lying in the way of the tide, which interrupt its courſe; therefore in many places near the ſhores, a great variety of other appearances, beſides thoſe already enumerated, ariſe. Theſe require particular ſolutions, in which the ſhores, ſtreights, ſhoals, rocks, and other objects, muſt be conſidered; a diſquiſition which requires much more room than can be ſpared in this introduction. What has been ſaid will however be ſufficient to explain the theory of the tides, and enable the reader to purſue the inquiry and ſolve the difficulties that may ariſe with regard to any particular place.

LENGTH *of* MILES *in different* COUNTRIES.

THERE is ſcarcely a greater variety in any thing than in this ſort of meaſure; not only thoſe of ſeparate countries differ, as the French from the Engliſh, but thoſe of the ſame country vary in the different provinces, and all commonly from the ſtandard. Thus the common Engliſh mile differs from the ſtatute mile, and the French have three ſorts of leagues.

We ſhall here give the miles of ſeveral countries, compared with the Engliſh by Dr. Hally.

The Engliſh ſtatute mile conſiſts of 5280 feet, 1760 yards, or 8 furlongs.
Eleven miles Iriſh are equal to fourteen Engliſh.
The Ruſſian vorſt is little more than ¾ Engliſh.
The Turkiſh, Italian, and old Roman leſſer mile, is nearly 1 Engliſh.
The Arabian, ancient and modern, is about 1¼ Engliſh.
The Scotch mile is about 1¼ Engliſh.
The Indian is almoſt 3 Engliſh.
The Dutch, Spaniſh, and Poliſh, is about 3½ Engliſh.
The German is more than 4 Engliſh.
The Swediſh, Daniſh, and Hungarian, is from 5 to 6 Engliſh.
The French common league is near 3 Engliſh, and
The Engliſh marine league is 3 Engliſh miles.

NATURAL DIVISIONS *of the* EARTH.

THE Planet which we inhabit, called the Earth, is made up of land and water, and is therefore called *terraqueous*. About one fourth of the ſurface of the globe is land; the other three fourths are water.

The common diviſions of the land and water are as follows:—

The Diviſions of Land are,

I. *Continents.*] A continent is a very large tract of country, not entirely ſeparated by water. There are commonly reckoned two continents, the *Eaſtern* and *Weſtern*. The eaſtern continent is divided into Europe, Aſia, and Africa: The weſtern, into North and South America. To theſe we may now add the continent of *New*

The Diviſions of Water are,

I. *Oceans.*] An ocean is a vaſt collection of water, not entirely ſeparated by land. There are five great oceans; the *Atlantic*, lying between America on the weſt, and Europe and Africa on the eaſt, 3,000 miles wide. The *Pacific*, between America on the eaſt, and Aſia on the weſt, 10,000 miles over. The *Indian*, which waſhes

New Holland, which is found to be ſufficiently large to bear the reſpectable name of continent. Some geographers reckon four continents, viz. Europe, Aſia, Africa, and America. But according to the above definition there are but the three mentioned.

II. *Iſlands.*] An iſland is a tract of land entirely ſurrounded with water; as Rhode Iſland, Long Iſland, Cuba, Ireland, Great Britain, Japan.

III. *Peninſulas.*] A peninſula is almoſt an iſland, or a tract of land ſurrounded by water, excepting at one narrow neck; as Boſton, the Morea, Crim Tartary, and Arabia.

IV. *Iſthmuſſes.*] An iſthmus is a narrow neck of land joining a peninſula to the main land; as the iſthmus of Darien, which joins North and South America, 70 miles over; and the iſthmus of Suez, which unites Aſia and Africa, 60 miles over.

V. *Promontories.*] A promontory is a mountain or hill extending into the ſea, the extremity of which is called a cape. A point of flat land projecting far into the ſea, is likewiſe called a cape; as Cape Ann, Cape Cod, Cape Hatteras, Cape Horn.

VI. *Mountains.*] A mountain is a part of the land more elevated than the adjacent country, and ſeen at a diſtance; as the White Hills.

waſhes the eaſtern ſhores of Africa, and the ſouthern ſhores of Aſia, 3,000 miles wide. Beſides theſe there is the *Northern* or *Frozen* ocean, lying northward of Europe and Aſia, 3,000 miles wide; and the *Southern*, extending from the ſouthern coaſts of Africa to the ſouth pole, 8,500 miles over.

II. *Lakes.*] A lake is a large collection of water in the interior parts of a country, ſurrounded by land; moſt of them, however, communicate with the ocean by rivers; as lake Ontario, &c. A ſmall collection of water ſurrounded as above, is called a pond.

III. *Seas.*] A ſea or gulf is a part of the ocean, ſurrounded by land, excepting a narrow paſs, called a ſtrait, by which it communicates with the ocean; as the Mediterranean, Baltic, and Red Seas; and the gulfs of Mexico, St. Lawrence, and Venice.

IV. *Straits.*] A ſtrait is a narrow paſſage out of one ſea into another; as the ſtraits of Gibraltar, joining the Mediterranean to the Atlantic; the ſtraits of Babelmandel, which unite the Red Sea with the Indian Ocean.

V. *Bays.*] A bay is a part of the ſea running up into the main land, commonly between two capes; as Maſſachuſetts Bay, between Cape Ann and Cape Cod; Delaware Bay, between Cape May and Cape Henlopen; Cheſapeak Bay, between Cape Charles and Cape Henry.

VI. *Rivers.*] A river is a conſiderable ſtream of water, iſſuing from one or more ſprings, and gliding into the ſea. A ſmall ſtream is called a rivulet or brook.

An ACCOUNT *of the* GREGORIAN *or* NEW STYLE.*

POPE Gregory the XIII. made a reformation of the Calendar. The Julian Calendar, or Old Style, had, before that time, been in general uſe all over Europe. The year, according to the Julian Calendar, conſiſts of 365 days and 6 hours; which 6 hours being one fourth part of a day, the common years conſiſted of 365 days, and

* From Pike's Arithmetic.

every fourth year one day was added to the month of February, which made each of thoſe years 366 days, which are uſually called Leap Years.

This computation, though near the truth, is more than the ſolar year, by 11 minutes, which in 131 years amounts to a whole day. In conſequence of this, the vernal equinox was anticipated ten days from the general Council of Nice, held in the year 325 of the Chriſtian Æra, to the time of Pope Gregory; who therefore cauſed ten days to be taken out of the month of October, 1582, to make the Equinox fall on the 21ſt of March, as it did at the time of that Council. And to prevent the like variation in future, he ordered that three days ſhould be abated in every four hundred years, by reducing the Leap year at the cloſe of each century, for three ſucceſſive centuries, to common years, and retaining the Leap year at the cloſe of each fourth century only.

At that time this was conſidered as exactly conformable to the true ſolar year; but Dr. Hally makes the ſolar year to be 365 days, 5 hours, 48 minutes, 54 ſeconds, 41 3ds, 27 4ths, 36 5ths; according to which, in 400 years, the Julian year of 365 days 6 hours will exceed the ſolar by three days, one hour and 53 minutes, which is nearly two hours, ſo that in fifty centuries it will amount to a day.

Though the Gregorian Calendar, or New Style, had long been uſed throughout the greater part of Europe, it did not take place in Great Britain and America till the firſt of January 1752, and in September following, the 11 days were adjuſted, by calling the third day of that month the fourteenth, and continuing the reſt in their order.

A TABLE,

Exhibiting the Superficial Content of the whole Globe, in Square Miles, ſixty to a degree, and alſo of the Seas and Unknown Parts, the Habitable Earth, the Continents; likewiſe the great Empires, and principal Iſlands, arranged according to their magnitude.

	Square Miles.
The Globe about	199,000,000
Seas and unknown parts	160,000,000
The habitable World	39,000,000
America	14,000,000
Aſia	10,500,000
Africa	9,500,000
Europe	2,600,000
Continent of New Holland	4,000,000
Perſian Empire under Darius	1,600,000
Roman Empire in its meridian	1,600,000
Ruſſia	4,000,000
Chineſe	1,700,000
Great Mogul	1,100,000
United States of America	1,000,000
Turkiſh Empire	950,000
Preſent Perſia	800,000
Borneo	228,000
Madagaſcar	168,000
Sumatra	129,000
Japan	118,000
Great Britain	72,900

	Square Miles.
Celebes	68,400
Manilla	58,500
Iceland	46,000
Terra del Fuego	42,000
Mindinao	39,100
Cuba	38,400
Java	38,200
Hiſpaniola	36,000
Newfoundland	35,500
Ceylon	27,700
Ireland	27,500
Formoſa	17,000
Anian	12,000
Gilolo	10,400
Sicily	9,400
Timor	7,800
Sardinia	6,600
Cyprus	6,300
Jamaica	6,000
Flores	6,000
Ceram	5,400

Breton

	Square Miles.		Square Miles.
Breton	4,000	Cephalonia	420
Socrata	3,600	Amboyna	400
Candia	3,220	Orkney Pomona	324
Porto Rico	3,200	Scio	300
Corſica	2,520	Martinico	260
Zealand	1,900	Lemnos	220
St. Jago	1,400	Corfu	194
Long Iſland or Manhattan	1,400	Providence	168
Majorca	1,400	Man	160
Negropont	1,300	Bornholm	160
Teneriff	1,270	Wight	150
Gothland	1,000	Malta	150
Madeira	950	Barbadoes	140
St. Michael	920	Antigua	100
Skye	900	St. Chriſtopher's	80
Lewis	886	St. Helena	80
Funen	768	Guernſey	50
Yvica	625	Rhode Iſland	50
Minorca	520	Jerſey	43
Rhodes	480	Bermudas	40

New Guinea
New Zealand
New Caledonia
New Hebrides
Otaheite
Friendly Iſlands
Marqueſas
Eaſter or David's
Pelew Iſlands.

} Iſlands lately diſcovered, but not fully explored, and whoſe dimenſions are not exactly known.



HISTORY AND DISCOVERY

OF

AMERICA.

IT is believed by many, and not without ſome plauſible foundation, that America was known to the Ancients. Of this, however, hiſtory affords no certain evidence. The Norwegians, the Welſh, and the Germans, each in their turn, have made pretenſions to the diſcovery of America. As early as 874 the Norwegians diſcovered, and planted a colony in Iceland; and in 982, they diſcovered, and made ſettlements in Greenland. Thence, ſome of their enterpriſing navigators, proceeded ſtill farther weſtward till they diſcovered a country, the coaſt of which was ſandy, but the interior parts level and covered with wood, on which account they called it *Helle-land* and *Mark-land*, and having afterwards found ſome plants of the vine, which bore grapes, they called it *Wine-land* or *Vine-land*. But where this country lies hiſtorians are not agreed. If it was any part of the American coaſt, as it probably muſt have been, all attempts to plant colonies in it proved unſucceſsful, and the knowledge of it was ſoon loſt.*

The

* Monſ. Mallet, in the firſt volume of his *Northern Antiquities*, gives us from authorities of unqueſtionable credibility, a circumſtantial account of the diſcovery and ſettlements of *Vine-land*. This Author informs that Iceland was peopled by a colony of Norwegians, under Ingulph, in the year 874. Greenland was ſettled by Eric Rufus, a young Norwegian, in the year 982; and before the eleventh century, churches were founded, and a biſhopric erected at Garde, the capital of the ſettlement. Shortly after this, Biarn, an Icelandic navigator, by accident, diſcovered land to the weſtward of Greenland, which was more fully explored in the year 1002, and from the deſcription given, anſwers to no other than the American coaſt.

The diſcovery of a diſtant country, ſays our author, "called *Vine-land*, and the reality of a Norwegian colony's ſettling there, appear to be facts, ſo well atteſted on all ſides, and related with circumſtances ſo probable, as to leave no room for any doubt. But to ſettle the geography of the country where this happened, is not an eaſy matter. It could not, however, have been far from the coaſts of Labrador, or thoſe of Newfoundland; both which are in the vicinity of Greenland.

Mr. Calm (or Kalm) a Sweediſh botaniſt, educated under Linnæus, who ſome years ſince travelled through Canada, with a view to acquaint himſelf with its natural hiſtory, conjectures that the colony of *Vine-land* was in the Iſland of Newfoundland, which is ſeparated from that part of the continent called Labrador, by a narrow ſtrait only, of a few leagues, called Belle-iſle. Davis's ſtrait, which ſeparates Greenland from the American continent, is known to be very narrow in ſeveral places. The Greenlanders, according to Mr. Egede, aſſert, that it is only a deep bay which runs on, narrowing towards the north, till the oppoſite American continent can be eaſily diſcerned from the Greenland ſhore; and that the extremity of this bay ends in a river, over which wandering ſavages, inured to cold, might eaſily paſs from one land to the other, without canoes. And hence the peopling of the north-eaſtern part of the American continent is eaſily and rationally accounted for.

All accounts agree in deſcribing Vine-land as a country which ſpontaneouſly produces the Vine. And this has led Dr. Robertſon and others to conſider the whole hiſtory as too fabulous to be credited. Doctor Robertſon aſſerts that grapes are not the production either of Labrador, or Newfoundland. But the learned Mr. Ellis, in

The pretenſions of the Welſh to the diſcovery of America have but a ſlight foundation. In the 12th century, according to Powell, a diſpute having ariſen among the ſons of Owen Gwyneth, king of North-Wales, concerning the ſucceſſion to his crown, Madoc, one of the number, weary of this contention, betook himſelf to ſea, in ſearch of a more peaceful ſettlement. He ſteered due weſt, leaving Ireland to the north, and arrived in an unknown country, which appeared to him deſirable; he returned to Wales, and carried thither ſeveral of his adherents and companions. This is ſaid to have taken place about the year 1170. He and his colony have not been heard of ſince.

Some German authors aſcribe the honour of having diſcovered America, to Martin Behaim, their countryman. He deſcended from a noble family, of the imperial town of Nuremburgh—was a ſcholar of the celebrated John Muller, and became an adept in the ſcience of coſmography. Under the patronage of the Ducheſs of Burgundy he repaired to Liſbon, whither the fame of the Portugueſe diſcoveries invited all the adventurous ſpirits of the age. In 1483, in company with Diego Cano, he made a voyage to the ſouthward, and is ſaid to have diſcovered the kingdom of Congo, on the coaſt of Africa. He ſettled in the iſland of Fayal, one of the Azores, and was a particular friend of Columbus. He conſtructed a terreſtrial globe, which afterwards fell into the hands of Magellan. On this globe Magellan laid down the courſe which he purpoſed to hold in ſearch of the communication with the South Sea, which he afterwards diſcovered. In the year 1492, Behaim viſited his relations at Nuremburgh, and left with them a map, drawn with his own hand, which is ſtill preſerved among the archives of the family. So far the ſtory of Martin Behaim is well authenticated; but as to the accounts of his having diſcovered any part of the American coaſt, though credited by ſome ingenious men, they have too great an appearance of conjecture to gain general belief.* For aught we can learn from authentic documents, the eaſtern continent was the only theatre of hiſtory, the partial diſcoveries of the Norwegians

in his voyage to Hudſon's bay, mentions that he met with the vine, about the Engliſh ſettlements at that place, and compares the fruit of it to the currants of the Levant. And credible travellers ſay that the vine grows ſpontaneouſly in Canada, and in ſtill more northern latitudes, and bears a ſmall well-taſted fruit.

On the whole, concludes our Author, "there can be no doubt but that the Norwegian Greenlanders diſcovered the American continent; that the place where they ſettled was either the country of Labrador or Newfoundland; and that their colony ſubſiſted there a good while. This is all we can ſay about it with any certainty. To endeavour to aſcertain the exact ſituation, extent and fortune of the eſtabliſhment, would be a fruitleſs labour.

*The Librarian of St. Mark's Library at Venice, in a letter to the Editors of a foreign magazine, furniſhes the following curious fact relative to the diſcovery of America.

"To the inquiry which you make," ſaid he "I anſwer, that in the nautical map, exiſting in St. Mark's Library, and lately publiſhed here by Signior Formaleoni, on the ſpot, where at preſent the *Antilles* are known to be, there certainly is delineated, a great iſland, with various harbours and near it is written *y°. de Antillia.* The delineation and the writing are all by the ſame hand; it cannot therefore, be ſaid, that any addition has been made to it. In it is written, in ancient characters, and by the ſame hand which wrote all the reſt, *Andreas Biancho de Veneciis me fecit* MCCCCXXXVI.† Let it not appear extraordinary to you, that in thoſe times they had a confuſed notion of the Antilles. I ſhall ſhew that even before the diſcovery of Columbus, they had an idea of them, and that the *Antillia* were mentioned. This I ſhall treat of in illuſtrating the manuſcripts of *Andria Biancho*, together with the reſt of St. Mark's library, which now employs all the time I am able to call my own."

Col. Mag. for Nov. 1791.

N. B The *Antilles* lie in the bay of Mexico, between the iſland of Cuba and South America.

† *Fifty-ſix years before Columbus ſailed, for the firſt time, from the port of Palos, in Spain, for the diſcovery of the New World.*

excepted

excepted, from creation till the year of our Lord 1492; and Columbus has a fair claim to the honour of being the diſcoverer of the NEW WORLD.

As the following work propoſes to give a deſcription of this NEW WORLD, as it was originally called, eſpecially of its moſt intereſting parts, which have lately become the ſcene of the moſt important events that adorn the page of hiſtory, an account of its diſcovery may rationally be expected.

CHRISTOPHER COLON or COLUMBUS, a ſubject of the republic of Genoa, was among the foreigners, whom the fame of the diſcoveries of the Portugueſe had allured into their ſervice. He deſcended from a noble family reduced by misfortunes; but neither the time nor place of his birth are certainly known. His anceſtors, having had recourſe to a ſeafaring life for ſupport, Columbus, from his early youth, diſcovered ſuch peculiar talents for that profeſſion, as indicated his future greatneſs.—His parents encouraged this original propenſity by giving him a ſuitable education. After acquiring ſome knowledge of the Latin tongue, the only language in which ſcience was taught at that time, he was inſtructed in geometry, coſmography, aſtronomy, and the art of drawing. To theſe he applied with ſuch ardour and predilection, on account of their connection with navigation, his favourite object, that he made rapid proficiency in them. Thus qualified, in 1461, at the early age of fourteen, he went to ſea, and began his career on that element which conducted him to ſo much glory. His early voyages were limited principally to thoſe places which had before been diſcovered, in which nothing very remarkable happened, except that in a ſea fight, off the coaſt of Portugal, with ſome Venetian coaſters, the veſſel on board which he ſerved, took fire, together with one of the enemy's, to which it was faſt grappled; upon which he threw himſelf into the ſea, laid hold of a floating oar, and by the ſupport of it, and his dexterity in ſwimming, he reached the ſhore, though more than ſix miles diſtant, and thus preſerved a life deſigned for great undertakings.

Soon after this he went to Liſbon, where he married a daughter of Bartholomew Pereſtrello, one of the captains employed by Prince Henry in his early voyages, and who had diſcovered and planted the iſlands of Porto Santo and Madeira. The journals and charts of this experienced navigator, his father-in-law, fell into his hands, and he, with avidity, availed himſelf of the valuable information they contained. His impatience to viſit the places which Pereſtrello had ſeen and deſcribed, became irreſiſtible; and he made a voyage to Madeira, and ſpent ſeveral years in trading with that iſland, the Canaries, the Azores, the ſettlements in Guinea, and all other places which the Portugueſe had diſcovered on the continent of Africa.

By the experience acquired during ſuch a variety of voyages, Columbus became one of the moſt ſkilful navigators of Europe. But his ambition did not permit him to reſt ſatisfied with that praiſe. He aimed at ſomething more. A project had been conceived of finding out a paſſage by ſea to the Eaſt Indies. The accompliſhment of this became a favourite object with Columbus. The Portugueſe ſought this rout by ſteering towards the ſouth, in hope of arriving at India, by turning to the eaſt, after they had ſailed round the farther extremity of Africa; which paſſage was afterwards effected 1497, by Vaſco de Gama, a Portugueſe navigator. Columbus contemplated a ſhorter and more direct paſſage to the Eaſt Indies, by ſailing towards the weſt, acroſs the Atlantic Ocean. The principles and arguments which induced him to adopt this opinion, then conſidered as chimerical, were highly rational and philoſophical. The ſphericity and magnitude of the earth were at that period aſcertained with ſome degree of accuracy. From this it was evident, that the continents of Europe, Aſia, and Africa, formed but a ſmall

part of the terraqueous globe. It appeared likewiſe extremely probable, that the continent on the one ſide of the globe, was balanced by a proportionable quantity of land in the other hemiſphere. Theſe concluſions concerning the exiſtence of another continent, drawn from the figure and ſtructure of the globe, were confirmed by the obſervations and conjectures of modern navigators, and from pieces of timber artificially carved, canes of an enormous ſize, trees torn up by the roots, and the dead bodies of two men with ſingular features, which had been diſcovered and taken up, floating before a weſterly wind, or driven on the coaſts of the Azores. The force of this united evidence, ariſing from theoretical principles and practical obſervations, led Columbus to conclude, that by ſailing directly towards the weſt, acroſs the Atlantic ocean, new countries, which probably formed a part of the vaſt continent of India, muſt infallibly be diſcovered.

As early as the year 1474, he communicated his ingenious theory to Paul, a phyſician of Florence, eminent for his knowledge of coſmography. He warmly approved of the plan; ſuggeſted ſeveral facts in confirmation of it, and encouraged Columbus to perſevere in an undertaking ſo laudable, and which muſt redound ſo much to the honour of his country, and the benefit of Europe.

Columbus now became impatient to bring to the teſt of experiment, the truth of his ſyſtem, and to ſet out upon a voyage of diſcovery. The firſt ſtep towards this was to ſecure the patronage of ſome of the conſiderable powers of Europe. With this view he laid his ſcheme before the Senate of Genoa, and making his native and beloved country, the firſt tender of his ſervice, offered to ſail, under the banners of the republic, in queſt of new regions which he expected to diſcover. But they, incapable of forming juſt ideas of his principles, inconſiderately rejected his propoſal as chimerical. He then ſubmitted his plan to the Portugueſe, who perfidiouſly attempted to rob him of the honour of accompliſhing it, by privately ſending another perſon to purſue the ſame tract which he had propoſed. But the pilot, who was thus baſely employed to execute Columbus' plan, had neither the genius nor the fortitude of its author. Contrary winds aroſe—no land appeared—his courage failed, and he returned to Liſbon, execrating a plan which he had not abilities to execute.

On diſcovering this flagrant treachery, Columbus immediately quitted the kingdom in diſguſt, and landed in Spain, towards the cloſe of the year 1484. Here he reſolved to propoſe it in perſon to Ferdinand and Iſabella, who at that time governed the united kingdoms of Caſtile and Arragon. He, in the mean time, ſent his brother Bartholomew to England, to propoſe his plan to Henry VII.

After experiencing a ſeries of mortifying diſappointments, during eight tedious years, which the brevity of this hiſtory will not permit us to relate, Columbus, in deep anguiſh, withdrew from court, determined to repair to England as his laſt reſource. At this juncture the affairs of Spain, which had been perplexed in conſequence of a war with the Moors, took a favourable turn. Quintanilla and Santangel, two powerful, vigilant and diſcerning patrons of Columbus, ſeized this favourable opportunity to make one more effort in behalf of their friend. They addreſſed themſelves to Iſabella, with ſuch forcible arguments as produced the deſired effect. They diſpelled all Iſabella's doubts and fears;—ſhe ordered Columbus, who had proceeded on his journey, to be inſtantly recalled—declared her reſolution to employ him on his own terms; and regretting the low eſtate of her finances, generouſly offered to pledge her own jewels, in order to raiſe as much money as might be needed in making preparations for the voyage. Santangel, in a tranſport of gratitude, kiſſed the queen's hand, and, in order to

ſave

ſave her from having recourſe to ſuch a mortifying expedient for procuring money, engaged to advance, immediately, the ſum that was requiſite.

Columbus had proceeded ſome leagues on his journey, when the meſſenger from Iſabella overtook him. He returned with joy mingled with ſome degree of fear, leſt he ſhould again be diſappointed. The manner of his reception by the queen was, however, ſuch as quickly diſpelled his fears. A negociation commenced, and was forwarded with diſpatch, and a treaty of capitulation, with Columbus, was ſigned on the 7th of April 1492. The chief articles of it were, 1. Ferdinand and Iſabella, as ſovereigns of the ocean, conſtituted Columbus their high admiral in all the ſeas, iſlands, and continents, which ſhould be diſcovered by his induſtry; and ſtipulated, that he and his heirs for ever ſhould enjoy this office, with the ſame powers and prerogatives which belonged to the high admiral of Caſtile, within the limits of his juriſdiction. 2. They appointed Columbus their viceroy in all the iſlands and continents which he ſhould diſcover; but if, for the better adminiſtration of affairs, it ſhould be neceſſary to eſtabliſh a ſeparate governor in any of thoſe countries, they authoriſed Columbus to name three perſons, of whom they would chuſe one for that office; and the dignity of viceroy, with all its immunities, was likewiſe to be hereditary in the family of Columbus. 3. They granted to Columbus and his heirs for ever, the tenth of the free profits accruing from the productions and commerce of the countries which he ſhould diſcover. 4. They declared, if any controverſy or lawſuit ſhould ariſe, with reſpect to any mercantile tranſaction, in the countries which ſhall be diſcovered, it ſhould be determined by the ſole authority of Columbus, or of judges to be appointed by him. 5. They permitted Columbus to advance one eighth part of what ſhould be expended in preparing for the expedition, and in carrying on commerce with the countries which he ſhould diſcover, and intitled him, in return, to an eighth part of the profit.

Though the name of Ferdinand appears conjoined with that of Iſabella in this tranſaction, his diſtruſt of Columbus was ſo violent, that he refuſed to take any part of the enterpriſe, as king of Arragon. As the whole expence of the expedition was to be defrayed by the crown of Caſtile, Iſabella reſerved for her ſubjects of that kingdom, an excluſive right to all the benefits which might redound from its ſucceſs.

After all the efforts of Iſabella and Columbus, the armament was ſuitable, neither to the dignity of the power who equipped it, nor to the importance of the ſervice to which it was deſtined. It conſiſted of three veſſels; the largeſt, a ſhip of no conſiderable burden, was commanded by Columbus, as admiral, who gave it the name of *Santa Maria*. Of the ſecond, called the *Pinta*, Martin Pinzon was captain, and his brother Francis pilot. The third, named the *Nigna*, was under the command of Vincent Yanez Pinzon. Theſe two laſt mentioned were light veſſels, hardly ſuperior in burden or force to large boats.—This little ſquadron was victualled for twelve months, and had on board ninety men, moſtly ſailors, together with a few adventurers, who followed the fortune of Columbus, and ſome gentlemen of Iſabella's court, whom ſhe appointed to accompany him. The ſum employed in fitting out this ſquadron did not exceed £. 4000, ſterling.

On the 3d of Auguſt, 1492, being Friday,* Columbus ſet ſail, in the preſence of a vaſt

* The ſuperſtitious notion that *Friday* is an unlucky day to commence a voyage, did not, it ſeems, exiſt in the time of Columbus; otherwiſe he would not have fixed on this *unlucky day* to ſet ſail on ſo important a voyage. When and whence did this ſuperſtitious notion originate? Why do men continue to entertain it, in an age, which boaſts a freedom from the ſhackles of ſuperſtition? Is it not time that it was baniſhed? The

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vaſt crowd of ſpectators, who offered fervent ſupplications to heaven for his ſucceſs, which they rather wiſhed than expected. He ſteered directly for the Canary iſlands, and in the ſhort run thither, found his ſhips crazy and ill appointed, and very unfit for ſo long and dangerous a navigation as he had undertaken. After refitting them as well as he could, he left the Canaries on the 6th of September, and here properly commenced the voyage of diſcovery. He held his courſe due weſt, and immediately left the uſual track of navigation, and ſtretched into unknown and unfrequented ſeas. By the 14th of September the fleet was about 200 leagues weſt of the Canaries, at a greater diſtance from land than any Spaniard had been before that time.

Columbus early diſcovered, from the ſpirit of his followers, that he muſt prepare to ſtruggle, not only with the unavoidable difficulties which might be expected from the nature of his undertaking, but with ſuch alſo as were likely to ariſe from the ignorance and timidity of the people under his command. All the art and addreſs he was maſter of was hardly ſufficient to quell the mutinous diſpoſition of his ſailors, who grew the more turbulent in proportion as their diſtance from home increaſed. What moſt aſtoniſhed Columbus, during the voyage, was the variation of the magnetic needle. He obſerved that it did not point exactly to the polar ſtar, but varied towards the weſt. This appearance, then one of the myſteries of nature, though now familiar, filled the companions of Columbus with terror. They were now in the midſt of a trackleſs ocean—nature herſelf ſeemed to be altered, and the only guide they had left was about to fail them. Columbus, with no leſs quickneſs than ingenuity, invented a reaſon for this appearance, which, though it did not ſatisfy himſelf, ſeemed ſo plauſible to them, that it diſpelled their fears, and ſilenced their murmurs.

On the evening of the 11th of October, Columbus was ſo confident, from various appearances, of being near land, that he ordered the ſails to be furled, and the ſhips to lie to, and ſtrict watch to be kept leſt they ſhould be driven on ſhore in the night. During this interval of ſuſpenſe and expectation, no man ſhut his eyes, all kept on deck, gazing intently towards that quarter where they expected to diſcover the land, which had ſo long been the object of their wiſhes. A little before midnight, Columbus, from the forecaſtle, diſcovered a light at a diſtance—and ſhortly after the joyful ſound of *land! land!* was heard from the Pinta, which always kept a head of the other ſhips. At the dawn of day, an iſland was ſeen from every ſhip, at the diſtance of about two leagues north, whoſe verdant aſpect indicated a moſt delightful country. The crews of all the ſhips, with tears of joy and tranſports of congratulation, unitedly ſang *Te Deum*, as a hymn of thankſgiving to God. They then, with feelings of ſelf condemnation, mingled with reverence, threw themſelves at the feet of Columbus, begged him to forgive their ignorance, incredulity and inſolence, which had given him ſo much unneceſſary diſquiet—acknowledged his ſuperior abilities, and promiſed obedience in future.

At ſunriſing, the boats were manned and armed, and they rowed towards the iſland with their colours diſplayed, with warlike muſic and other martial pomp. As they approached the coaſt, they ſaw it covered with a multitude of people, whom the novelty of the ſpectacle had drawn together, whoſe attitudes and geſtures expreſſed wonder and aſtoniſhment at the ſtrange objects before them. Columbus was the firſt European who ſet foot in the New World which he had diſcovered. He landed in a

ſucceſs of Columbus in diſcovering a New World, during a voyage commenced on *Friday* proves, *if any thing*, that this is the moſt *lucky day* in the ſeven, for going to ſea:—If ſo, why would it not be well to ſubſtitute it in the room of the Sabbath, which is now too commonly fixed on for that purpoſe?

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rich dreſs, and with a naked ſword in his hand. His men followed, and kneeling down, they all kiſſed the ground which they had ſo long deſired to ſee. They next erected a crucifix, and proſtrating themſelves before it, returned thanks to God for conducting their voyage to ſo happy an iſſue. They then took ſolemn and formal poſſeſſion of the country for the crown of Caſtile and Leon.

The dreſs of the Spaniards, their beards, their arms, the vaſt machines with which they had traverſed the ocean, the thundering roar of the cannon, accompanied with lightning and ſmoke, filled the natives with ſurpriſe and terror, and they began to conſider them as children of the ſun, who had deſcended to viſit mortals here below.

The Spaniards were hardly leſs amazed in their turn. The productions of the iſland were different from any thing they had ſeen in Europe. The inhabitants appeared in the ſimple innocence of nature, entirely naked. Their black hair, long and uncurled, floated upon their ſhoulders, or was bound in treſſes round their heads. They had no beards, and every part of their bodies was perfectly ſmooth. Their complection was of a duſky copper colour; their features ſingular rather than diſagreeable, and their aſpect gentle and timid. They were ſhy at firſt, through fear, but ſoon became familiar with the Spaniards, and with tranſports of joy, received from them various kinds of trinkets, in return for which they gave proviſions, and ſome cotton yarn, the only commodity of value they could produce. Thus in the firſt interview between the inhabitants of the Old and New Worlds, every thing was conducted amicably, and to their mutual ſatisfaction.

The iſland on which Columbus firſt landed he called San Salvador. It is one of that large cluſter of iſlands known by the name of the Lucaya or Bahama iſlands, and is above 3000 miles weſt of the Canaries.

He afterwards touched at ſeveral iſlands of the ſame cluſter, inquiring every where for gold, which he thought was the only object of commerce worth his attention. In ſteering ſouthward, he diſcovered the iſlands of Cuba and Hiſpaniola, abounding in all the neceſſaries of life, and inhabited by a humane and hoſpitable people.

On his return to Spain he was overtaken by a ſtorm, which had nearly proved fatal to his ſhips and their crews. At a criſis when all was given up for loſt, Columbus had preſence of mind enough to retire into his cabin, and to write upon parchment a ſhort account of his voyage. This he wrapped in an oiled cloth, which he incloſed in a cake of wax, put it into a tight caſk, and threw it into the ſea, in hopes that ſome fortunate accident might preſerve a depoſit of ſo much importance to the world. He arrived at Palos in Spain, whence he had ſailed the year before, on the 15th of March 1493. He was welcomed with all the acclamations which the populace are ever ready to beſtow on great and glorious characters; and the court received him with marks of the greateſt reſpect.

In September, of this year, (1493) Columbus ſailed upon his ſecond voyage to America; during the performance of which, he diſcovered the iſlands of Dominica, Marigalante, Gaudaloupe, Montſerrat, Antigua, Porto Rico, and Jamaica; and returned to Spain 1496.

In 1498, he ſailed a third time for America; and on the 1ſt of Auguſt diſcovered the continent, at the mouth of the river Oronoke. He then coaſted along weſtward, making other diſcoveries, for 200 leagues to Cape Vela, from which he croſſed over to Hiſpaniola, where he was ſeized by a new Spaniſh governour, and ſent home in chains.

In 1502 Columbus made his fourth, and laſt, voyage to Hiſpaniola; thence he went over to the continent—diſcovered the bay of Honduras—thence ſailed along the main ſhore eaſterly 200 leagues, to Cape Gracias a Dios, Veragua, Porto Bello, and the Gulf of Darien, ſearching, in vain, for a paſſage to the Eaſt Indies. During this voyage, he was ſhipwrecked on the Iſland of Jamaica, where he ſuffered almoſt inconceivably from the cruelty of the inhabitants, the mutiny of his men, and eſpecially from the infamous conduct of the governor of Hiſpaniola. He returned to Spain in 1504. On his arrival he received the fatal news of the death of his patroneſs, Queen Iſabella.

The jealous and avaricious Spaniards, not immediately receiving thoſe golden advantages from theſe new diſcoveries, which they had promiſed, and loſt to the feelings of humanity and gratitude, ſuffered their eſteem and admiration of Columbus to degenerate into ignoble envy.

The latter part of his life was made wretched by the cruel perſecutions of his enemies. Queen Iſabella, his friend and patroneſs, was no longer alive to afford him relief. He ſought redreſs from Ferdinand, but in vain. Diſguſted with the ingratitude of a monarch whom he had ſerved with ſo much fidelity and ſucceſs, exhauſted with hardſhips, and broken with the infirmities which theſe brought upon him, Columbus ended his active and uſeful life at Valadolid, on the 20th of May, 1506, in the 59th year of his age. He died with a compoſure of mind ſuited to the magnanimity which diſtinguiſhed his character, and with ſentiments of piety becoming that ſupreme reſpect for religion which he manifeſted in every occurrence of his life. He was grave though courteous in his deportment, circumſpect in his words and actions, irreproachable in his morals, and exemplary in all the duties of his religion.

Among other adventurers to the New World, in purſuit of gold, was Americus Veſpucius, a Florentine gentleman, whom Ferdinand had appointed to draw ſea charts, and to whom he had given the title of chief pilot. This man accompanied Ojeda, an enterpriſing Spaniſh adventurer, to America; and having with much art, and ſome degree of elegance, drawn up an amuſing hiſtory of his voyage, he publiſhed it to the world. It circulated rapidly, and was read with admiration. In his narrative, he had inſinuated that the glory of having firſt diſcovered the New World belonged to him. This was in part believed, and the country began to be called after the name of its ſuppoſed firſt diſcoverer. The unaccountable caprice of mankind has perpetuated the error; ſo that now, by the univerſal conſent of all nations, this new quarter of the globe is called AMERICA. The bold pretenſions of a fortunate impoſter have robbed the diſcoverer of the New World of a diſtinction which belonged to him. The name of Americus has ſupplanted that of Columbus, and mankind are left to regret an act of injuſtice, which, having been ſanctioned by time, they can never redreſs.

GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF AMERICA.

BOUNDARIES *and* EXTENT.

THE continent of America, of the diſcovery of which a ſuccinct account has juſt been given, extends from Cape Horn, the ſouthern extremity of the continent, in latitude 56° ſouth, to the north pole; and ſpreads between the 40th degree eaſt,

and the 100th degree weſt longitude from Philadelphia. It is nearly ten thouſand miles in length from north to ſouth. Its average breadth may be about 14 or 1500 miles. This extenſive continent lies between the Pacific Ocean on the weſt, and the Atlantic on the eaſt. It is ſaid to contain upwards of 14,000,000 ſquare miles.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCTIONS.] In regard to each of theſe, America has all the varieties which the earth affords. It ſtretches through almoſt the whole width of the five zones, and feels the heat and cold of two ſummers and two winters in every year. Moſt of the animal and vegetable productions which the eaſtern continent affords, are found here; and many that are peculiar to America, of which accounts will be given in their proper places.

RIVERS.] This continent is watered by ſome of the largeſt rivers in the world. The principal of theſe are Rio de la Plata, the Amazon and Oronoke, in South America—The Miſſiſippi and St. Lawrence, in North America.

GULF.] The Gulf or Bay of Mexico, lying in the form of a baſon, between North and South America, and opening to the eaſt, is conjectured by ſome to have been formerly land; and that the conſtant attrition of the waters in the Gulf Stream has worn it to its preſent form. The water in the Gulf of Mexico is ſaid to be many yards higher than on the weſtern ſide of the continent in the Pacific Ocean.

GULF STREAM.] The *Gulf Stream* is a remarkable current, iſſuing from the Gulf of Mexico, whence it takes its name, and proceeding along the coaſt of Florida and the United States, to the banks of Newfoundland, where it turns off and runs down through the Weſtern Iſlands; thence to the coaſt of Africa, and along that coaſt in a ſouthern direction till it arrives at, and ſupplies the place of thoſe waters, carried by the conſtant trade-winds from the coaſt of Africa towards the weſt, thus producing a perpetual circulating current.

This ſtream is probably generated by the great accumulation of water, on the eaſtern coaſt of America between the tropics, by the trade-winds which conſtantly blow there. It is known that a large piece of water ten miles broad, and generally only three feet deep, has, by a ſtrong wind, had it waters driven to one ſide and ſuſtained ſo as to become ſix feet deep, while the windward ſide was laid dry. This may give ſome idea of the quantity heaped upon the American coaſt, and the reaſon of its running down in a ſtrong current through the iſlands into the Gulf of Mexico and iſſuing as above-mentioned. This alſo renders the opinion, that the waters in the bay of Mexico are conſiderably higher than the waters on the oppoſite coaſt of the Pacific Ocean, in a high degree probable.

This ſtream is diſtinguiſhed from the other parts of the ocean by the gulf weed, with which it is every where interſperſed. It is alſo always much warmer, 8 or 10 degrees, than the ſea on each ſide of it, and it does not ſparkle in the night, as do the other waters of the ocean. It is no wonder that ſo vaſt a body of deep warm water, ſeveral leagues wide, coming from between the tropics, and iſſuing out of the gulf, into the northern ſeas, ſhould retain its warmth longer than the 20 or 30 days required to its paſſing the banks of Newfoundland. The quantity is too great, and too deep to be ſuddenly cooled by paſſing under a cooler air. The air immediately over it may receive ſo much warmth from it as to be rarefied and riſe, being rendered lighter than the air on each ſide of the ſtream; hence the ſurrounding denſer air muſt ruſh in to ſupply the place of the riſing warm air, and meeting with each other form thoſe tornadoes and water-ſpouts, which are ſo common in and near the ſtream: and as the vapour from a cup of tea, in a warm room, is hardly diſcernible, but becomes viſible in the cold air; ſo the vapour from the Gulf Stream, in warm latitudes, is ſcarcely viſible, but

but when it comes into cool air, off Newfoundland, it is condenſed into the fogs for which thoſe parts are ſo remarkable.

The power of wind to raiſe water above its common level in the ſea, is evident by the high tides occaſioned in all our American ſea ports, when a ſtrong north-eaſt wind blows againſt the Gulf Stream.

Skilful navigators, who have acquired a knowledge of the extent to which this ſtream reaches on the New England coaſt, have learnt, in their voyages from Europe to New England, New York, or Pennſylvania, to paſs the banks of Newfoundland in about 44° or 45° North latitude; to ſail thence in a courſe, between the northern edge of the Gulf Stream, and the ſhoals and banks of Sable Iſland, George's Bank, and Nantucket, by which they make better and quicker paſſages to America.

This ſtream is about 75 miles from the ſhores of the ſouthern States. The diſtance increaſes as you proceed northward. The width of it is about 40 or 50 miles, widening towards the north. Its common rapidity is 3 miles an hour. A north-eaſt wind narrows the ſtream, renders it more rapid, and drives it nearer the coaſt; north-weſt and weſt winds have a contrary effect.

Isthmus of Darien.] The celebrated Iſthmus of Darien, which divides North and South America, lies in about 8° North Latitude, and in the narroweſt part is not more than 70 miles acroſs on an E. N. E. and W. S. W. courſe. The country about the narroweſt parts of the Iſthmus is made up of low, ſickly vallies, and mountains of ſuch ſtupendous height, as to incline one to imagine that nature had raiſed them to ſerve as an eternal barrier between the Atlantic and Pacific oceans, which here approach ſo near each other, that from theſe mountains you can plainly diſcern the waters of both at the ſame time and ſeemingly at a very ſmall diſtance.

Some have imagined it practicable to unite theſe oceans by a canal, through this Iſthmus. But an Engliſh gentleman, from a late careful ſurvey of the country, pronounces ſuch an undertaking impracticable: as the mountains run north and ſouth, and ſeveral ridges of them, conſiſting of little elſe than ſolid rock and immenſe beds of oyſter ſhells, muſt be dug through in order to accompliſh it. But by going into 12° North Latitude, and joining the head of Lake Nicaragua to a ſmall river that runs into the Pacific Ocean, a communication becomes practicable; and by 30 miles digging through a level, low country, two oceans may be joined, and a tedious navigation ſaved, of 10,000 miles, round Cape Horn. What would be the conſequences of ſuch a junction is not eaſy to ſay, but it is very probable, that a ſmall canal, in this place, would in the courſe of a few years be formed into a deep river, more eſpecially when we conſider that the waters on the oppoſite ſhore of the Atlantic, as we before obſerved, are conſiderably higher than thoſe in the Pacific.

Probably too, in a length of years, ſuch a junction would wear away the earthy parts of the Iſthmus, and form a broad ſtrait between the oceans; in which caſe the Gulf Stream would ceaſe, being turned into a different channel, and a voyage round the world would become an inconſiderable thing.

Upwards of an hundred years ago, the Scots people had ſo juſt an idea of the great importance of this Iſthmus, that they ſent out a colony to ſettle there, which ſettlement, however, proved abortive, through the extreme jealouſy of the Spaniards in that neighbourhood, but more through the ſhameful partiality of William III. and the jealouſy of the Engliſh nation.

Mountains.] The principal mountains on this Weſtern Continent are the famous chain of the *Andes* of South America. They ſtretch along the Pacific Ocean from the Straits of Magellan to the Iſthmus of Darien or Panama, upwards of 4000 miles; thence they

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are continued through the extenſive kingdom of New Spain till they loſe themſelves in the unknown countries of the North. In New Spain, the moſt conſiderable part of this chain is known by the name of *Sierra Madre*, particularly in Cinaloa, and Tarahumary, provinces 1200 miles diſtant from the capital. Farther north they have been called, from their bright appearance, the *Shining Mountains*.

Little is known reſpecting them. It is conjectured that they terminate in about 47 or 48 degrees of North latitude, where a number of rivers riſe and empty themſelves either into the Pacific Ocean, into Hudſon's Bay, into the waters which lie between them, or into the Atlantic ocean.

The *Allegany Mountains*, extending from Georgia to Hudſon's river, in New York, are next in magnitude and length to the *Andes*. It is not improbable that they are a branch of the *Andes*, ſtriking off in ſome part of South America, and interrupted by the Gulf of Mexico. It has been conjectured that the Weſt India iſlands were formerly united with each other, and formed a part of the continent. Their preſent diſjointed ſituation is ſuppoſed to have been occaſioned by the trade-winds. It is well known, as we have before mentioned, that they produce a ſtrong and continual current in the ocean from eaſt to weſt, which, by beating againſt the continent for a long courſe of years, muſt have cauſed great alterations, and may poſſibly have produced the effect ſuppoſed.

In the Bahama channel are many indications that the Iſland of Cuba was once united to Florida.

POPULATION.] There are no *data* from which we may eſtimate the number of inhabitants in America with any degree of accuracy. All calculations muſt proceed on uncertain grounds. The population of moſt of thoſe countries which have been ſettled by Europeans has not been aſcertained; who then is capable of eſtimating the number of inhabitants in thoſe numerous countries which have been very particularly explored, and thoſe which are altogether unknown to any European or other civilized nation? and ſuch are thoſe vaſt regions weſt, north-weſt, and north of the Miſſiſſippi and the Lakes, and immenſe countries in the interior parts of South America. The number of provinces, kingdoms, and even of nations, is unknown. We can therefore hardly gueſs at the number of inhabitants.

It has been common in eſtimating the population of the whole world to give 150 millions to America. The calculations of P. Riccioli, make them 300 millions.—Suſſimilch, in one part of his work, computes them at 100 millions, in another at 150 millions.—M. de Paw ſays, that political arithmeticians do not reckon more than 100 millions; but it is his own opinion that there are not more than from thirty to forty millions of "real Americans." I know not the principles upon which either of theſe authors grounded their calculations. I am inclined, however, to differ from them all. Some of them I am perſuaded are far beyond the truth; and M. de Paw, I imagine, has erred on the other hand. I ground my diſſent from the common opinion, and from the eſtimates of the forementioned reſpectable authors, on a calculation made on the following ſimple principles, which I adopt becauſe I know of none better.

I ſuppoſe the continent of America to contain 14 millions of ſquare miles; including the iſlands, 15 millions. The United States contain one million ſquare miles, or one fifteenth part of the American continent and iſlands. I ſuppoſe (merely for the purpoſe of calculation, what I do not believe to be fact) that every other part of America is as populous as the United States. Probably there may be ſome parts, particularly the Weſt India iſlands, and ſome provinces in Spaniſh America, which are more populous, but there are many other parts which are by no means ſo populous. The probability in my opinion, that the other parts of America, collectively conſidered, are not nearly

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ſo thickly inhabited as the territory of the United States. There is certainly no reaſon to believe that they are more populous. Indian population is thin: and vaſt tracts of deſerts, marſhes, and mountains are uninhabited. In the United States we reckon four millions of inhabitants, Anglo-Americans, Negroes, Mulattoes, and Indians, within the juriſdiction of the general government. Beſides theſe there may be about 50,000 Indians, independent of the United States, and ſubject to their own princes. The whole population of the United States then we reckon at 4,050,000. If then we ſuppoſe America to contain 15 millions of ſquare miles; and that in every part it is equally as populous as the United States, that is, that there are in every million of ſquare miles 4,050,000 inhabitants, the whole number will be *ſixty millions, ſeven hundred and fifty thouſand.* The exact number I preſume is conſiderably leſs than this.

WHEN WAS AMERICA PEOPLED? That America was peopled very anciently and ſoon after the flood, is very probable: 1. Becauſe the aboriginal Americans, till they became acquainted with Europeans, were ignorant of thoſe arts and inventions, ſuch, among others, as thoſe of wax and oil for light, which being very ancient in Europe and Aſia, on the one hand, are, on the other, moſt uſeful, not to ſay neceſſary, and when once diſcovered, are never forgotten. 2. Becauſe the poliſhed nations of the New World, and particularly thoſe of Mexico, preſerve in their traditions and paintings, the memory of the Creation of the World, the building of the Tower of Babel, the confuſion of languages, and the diſperſion of the people, though blended with ſome fables, and had no knowledge of the events which happened afterwards in Aſia, Africa, or in Europe, many of which were too remarkable to eſcape the memory. 3. Becauſe neither was there among the Americans any knowledge of the people of the old continent, nor among the latter any account of the paſſage of the former to the New World. Theſe reaſons we preſume render it at leaſt probable that America was peopled early after the flood.*

WHO WERE THE FIRST PEOPLE OF AMERICA? AND WHENCE DID THEY COME? On theſe two queſtions much has been ſaid. Thoſe who call in queſtion the authority of the ſacred writings ſay, the Americans are not deſcendants from Adam, that he was the father of the Aſiatics only, and that God created other men to be the patriarchs of the Europeans, Africans, and Americans. But this is one among the many weak hypotheſes of unbelievers, and is wholly unſupported by hiſtory. It is contrary to the tradition of the Americans, who in their paintings, and in their hymns, called themſelves the deſcendants of thoſe who eſcaped from the general deluge. The Mexicans, Toltecas, and ſeveral other nations were agreed in this point. They all ſaid their anceſtors came from other parts into thoſe countries; they pointed out the road they came, and even preſerved the names, true or falſe, of their firſt progenitors, who, after the confuſion of languages, ſeparated from the reſt of mankind. The traditions, with others, which the limits of this work will not allow us to inſert, conſidered in connection with the ſacred writings, muſt convince us that we ought to ſeek among the deſcendants of Noah, for the firſt peoplers of America.

But who were they? To recite all the opinions given in anſwer to this queſtion, and the reaſons to ſupport them, would fill a volume. Dr. Robertſon, and the Abbe Clavigero have extenſively and learnedly inveſtigated the ſubject. I cannot expect to afford the reader more ſatisfaction than to give him the reſult of their inquiries. Dr. Robertſon, having recapitulated and canvaſſed the moſt plauſible opinions on the ſubject, comes to the following concluſions, viz.

* Abbe Clavigero's Hiſt. Mexico, Vol. II. page 220.

1. That

1. That America was not peopled by any nation from the ancient continent, which had made any conſiderable progreſs in civilization; becauſe when America was firſt diſcovered, its inhabitants were unacquainted with the neceſſary arts of life, which are the firſt eſſays of the human mind toward improvement; and if they had ever been acquainted with them, for inſtance, with the plow, the loom, and the forge, their utility would have been ſo great and obvious, that it is impoſſible they ſhould have been loſt. Therefore the anceſtors of the firſt ſettlers in America were uncivilized and unacquainted with the neceſſary arts of life.

2. America could not have been peopled by any colony from the more ſouthern nations of the ancient continent; becauſe none of the rude tribes of theſe parts poſſeſſed enterprize, ingenuity, or power ſufficient to undertake ſuch a diſtant voyage: but more eſpecially, becauſe, that in all America there is not an animal, tame or wild, which properly belongs to the warm, or temperate countries of the eaſtern continent. The firſt care of the Spaniards, when they ſettled in America, was to ſtock it with all the domeſtic animals of Europe. The firſt ſettlers of Virginia and New England brought over with them, horſes, cattle, ſheep, &c. Hence it is obvious that the people who firſt ſettled in America, did not originate from thoſe countries where theſe animals abound, otherwiſe, having been accuſtomed to their aid, they would have ſuppoſed them neceſſary to the improvement, and even ſupport of civil ſociety.

3. Since the animals in the northern regions of America correſpond with thoſe found in Europe in the ſame latitudes, while thoſe in the tropical regions are indigenous, and widely different from thoſe which inhabit the correſponding regions on the eaſtern continent, it is more than probable that all the original American animals were of thoſe kinds which inhabit northern regions only, and that the two continents, towards the northern extremity, are ſo nearly united as that theſe animals might paſs from one to the other.

4. It having been eſtabliſhed beyond a doubt, by the diſcoveries of Capt. Cook in his laſt voyage, that at *Kamtſkatka*, in about latitude 66° north, the continents of Aſia and America are ſeparated by a ſtrait *only* 18 miles wide, and that the inhabitants on each continent are ſimilar, and frequently paſs and repaſs in canoes from one continent to the other; from theſe and other circumſtances it is rendered highly probable, that America was firſt peopled from the north-eaſt parts of Aſia. But ſince the Eſquimaux Indians are manifeſtly a ſeparate ſpecies of men, diſtinct from all the nations of the American Continent, in language, in diſpoſition, and in habits of life; and in all theſe reſpects bear a near reſemblance to the northern Europeans, it is believed that the Eſquimaux Indians emigrated from the north-weſt parts of Europe. Several circumſtances confirm this belief. As early as the ninth century the Norwegians diſcovered Greenland, and planted colonies there. The communication with that country, after long interruption, was renewed in the laſt century. Some Lutheran and Moravian miſſionaries, prompted by zeal for propagating the Chriſtian faith, have ventured to ſettle in this frozen region. From them we learn, that the north-weſt coaſt of Greenland is ſeparated from America, but by a very narrow ſtrait, if ſeparated at all; and that the Eſquimaux of America perfectly reſemble the Greenlanders in their aſpect, dreſs, mode of living, and probably language. By theſe deciſive facts, not only the conſanguinity of the Eſquimaux and Greenlanders is eſtabliſhed, but the poſſibility of peopling America from the north-weſt parts of Europe. On the whole, it appears rational to conclude, that the progenitors of all the American nations, from Cape Horn to the ſouthern limits of Labrador, from the ſimiliarity of their aſpect, color, &c. migrated from the north-eaſt parts of Aſia; and that the nations that inhabit Labrador, Eſquimaux and the parts adjacent, from their

unlikeneſs to the American nations, and their reſemblance to the northern Europeans, came over from the north-weſt parts of Europe.*

Such is the opinion of Dr. Robertſon, on the queſtion before us; and for want of information, it is in ſeveral reſpects inaccurate and without foundation. The opinion of the Abbe Clavigero, who was a native of America, and had much better advantages for knowing its hiſtory than Dr. Robertſon, and who alſo is a later writer, is in my opinion far leſs exceptionable, and has much better grounds for its ſupport. He explains his opinion in the following concluſions:—

1. The Americans deſcended from different nations, or from different families diſperſed after the confuſion of tongues. No perſon will doubt of the truth of this who has any knowledge of the multitude and great diverſity of the American languages. In Mexico alone *thirty-five* have already been diſcovered. In South America ſtill more are known. In the beginning of the laſt century the Portugueſe counted *fifty* in Maragnon. Between ſome of theſe languages, there is indeed a great affinity; but others are as different from each other as the Engliſh and the Hebrew. It is a truth, that no living or dead languages can differ more than the languages of the Mexicans, Otomies, Taraſcas, Mayas, and Miztecas, five languages prevailing in different provinces of Mexico. It would therefore be abſurd to ſay, that languages ſo different were different dialects of one original. Is it probable or even poſſible, that a nation ſhould alter its primative language to ſuch a degree, or multiply its dialects ſo variouſly as that there ſhould not be, even after many centuries, if not ſome words common to all, at leaſt an affinity between them, or ſome traces left of their origin?

2. The Americans do not derive their origin from any people now exiſting as a nation on the eaſtern continent; at leaſt there is no reaſon to affirm that they do. This inference is founded on the ſame argument with the preceding; ſince, if the Americans are deſcendants from any of theſe nations it would be poſſible to trace their origin by ſome marks in their languages, in ſpite of the antiquity of their ſeparation: but any ſuch traces have not yet been diſcovered, although moſt diligent and attentive ſearch has been made, as appears from the work of Dominican Garcia. We have, ſays Clavigero, leiſurely compared the Mexican and other American languages with many others which are now living, and with thoſe which are dead, but have not been able to diſcover the leaſt affinity between them. This argument is ſtrong with reſpect to the Americans, as they ſhew great firmneſs and conſtancy in retaining their languages. The Mexicans preſerve their language among the Spaniards, and the Otomies retain their difficult dialect among Spaniards and Mexicans, after communication with both for more than two centuries and an half.

If the Americans deſcended from different families diſperſed ſoon after the confuſion of tongues, as we believe, and have ſince been ſeparated from thoſe others who peopled the countries on the eaſtern continent, authors will labour in vain to ſeek, in the language or cuſtoms of the Aſiatics, for the origin of the people of America.

But the moſt difficult point in the problem of the population of America remains to be ſolved, and that is, how did the inhabitants and animals originally paſs to America, and from what parts did they come? Among the various opinions of authors upon this point, the following is the Abbe Clavigero's:

1. The men and animals of America paſſed there from the old continent. This is confirmed by the ſacred writings. Moſes, who declares Noah the common father of all men who ſurvived the deluge, ſays expreſsly, that in that general inundation of the earth all its quadrupeds, birds and reptiles, periſhed, except a few, of the ſeveral

* Hiſt. of America, Vol. II. p. 22, &c.

ſpecies which were ſaved alive in the ark, to re-people the earth with their kind. The repeated expreſſions which the ſacred hiſtorian uſes to ſignify its univerſality, do not permit us to doubt, that all quadrupeds, birds, and reptiles, which are in the world, deſcended from thoſe few individuals which were ſaved from the general inundation.

2. The firſt inhabitants of America might paſs there in veſſels by ſea, or travel by land or by ice. 1. They might either paſs there in veſſels deſignedly, if the diſtance by water were but ſmall, or be carried upon it accidentally by favourable winds. 2. They might paſs by land, on the ſuppoſition of the union of the continents. 3. They might alſo make that paſſage over the ice of ſome frozen arm of the ſea.

3. The anceſtors of the nations which peopled *Anahuac*, (now called *New Spain*) might paſs from the northern countries of Europe into the northern parts of America, or, which is more probable, from the moſt eaſtern parts of Aſia to the moſt weſtern parts of America. This concluſion is founded on the conſtant and general tradition of thoſe nations, which unanimouſly ſay, that their anceſtors came into Anahuac from the countries of the north and north-weſt. This tradition is confirmed by the remains of many ancient edifices, built by thoſe people in their migrations. In a journey made by the Spaniards in 1606, from New Mexico unto the river which they call *Tizon*, 600 miles from that province towards the north-weſt, they found there ſome large edifices, and met with ſome Indians who ſpoke the Mexican language, and who told them, that a few days journey from that river, towards the north, was the kingdom of Tollan, and many other inhabited places, whence the Mexicans migrated. In fact, the whole people of Anahuac have uſually affirmed, that towards the north were the kingdoms and provinces of Tollan, Aztlan, Copalla, and ſeveral others, which have all Mexican names. Boturini ſays, that in the ancient paintings of the Toltecas was repreſented the migration of their anceſtors through Aſia and the northern countries of America, until they eſtabliſhed themſelves in the country of Tollan; and even endeavours to aſcertain in his general hiſtory, the rout they purſued in their travels.

With reſpect to the other nations of America, as there is no tradition among them, concerning the way by which their anceſtors came to the new world, we can ſay nothing certain of them. It is *poſſible*, that they all paſſed by the ſame way in which the anceſtors of the Mexicans paſſed; but it is more probable that they paſſed by a very different rout. We conjecture, that the anceſtors of the nations of South America went there by the way in which the animals proper to hot countries paſſed; and that the anceſtors of thoſe nations inhabiting Eſquimaux, and Labrador, and the countries adjacent, paſſed thither from the north-weſt parts of Europe. The difference of character which is diſcoverable in the three above-mentioned claſſes of aboriginal Americans, and the ſituation of the countries which they occupied, afford ground to ſuſpect that they had different origins, and that their anceſtors came there by different routs. But this is mere conjecture.

4. The quadrupeds and reptiles of the new world paſſed there by land. This fact is manifeſt from the improbability and inconſiſtency of all other opinions. St. Auguſtin ſolves the difficulty of peopling the iſlands with wild beaſts and deſtructive animals by ſuppoſing either, 1. That the angels tranſported them thither, (a ſolution, which, though it cuts off every difficulty in the paſſage of animals to the new world, would not be ſatisfactory in the preſent age); or 2. That they might ſwim to the iſlands; or 3. That they might have been carried there by men for the ſake of hunting; or 4. That they might have been formed there by the Creator in the beginning. Others have imagined that beaſts might paſs over ſome frozen ſtrait or arm of the ſea. But as

neither of theſe opinions can be ſupported,* the probability is, that the quadrupeds, as well as the reptiles which are found in America, paſſed thither by land, and of courſe that the two continents were formerly united. This was the opinion of Acoſta, Grotius, Buffon, and other great men. That this earth has experienced great changes ſince the deluge will not admit of a doubt. Earthquakes have ſwallowed up large tracts of land in ſome places—ſubterraneous fires have thrown up others—the ſea in ſome places has been forced to retreat many miles from the ſhore—in others it has made encroachments—and in many inſtances ſeparated territories which were formerly united. Very conſiderable tracts of land have been alſo formed at the mouths of rivers. We have many examples of all theſe revolutions—Sicily was formerly united to the continent—The ſtraits of Gibraltar, as Diodorus, Strabo, and other ancient authors affirm, were formed by a violent irruption of the ocean upon the land between the mountains Abyla and Calpe. The people of Ceylon have a tradition, that a ſimilar irruption of the ſea ſeparated their iſland from the peninſula of India. The ſame is believed by the inhabitants of Malabar with reſpect to the Iſles of Maldivia, and by the Malayans with reſpect to Sumatra. Ceylon, as Buffon aſſerts, has loſt 30 or 40 leagues of land, by the ſea; and Tongres, a place in the Low Countries, has gained 30 leagues of land from the ſea—And Florida and the ſouthern American States have gained as much from the Bay of Mexico, and the iſlands between North and South America.—The northern part of Egypt owes its exiſtence to inundations of the Nile—And the province of Yellow-River in China, and part of Louiſiana in America, have both been formed by the mud of rivers. The peninſula of Yucatan has every appearance of having once formed a part of the bed of the ſea. In the ſtrait which ſeparates America from Aſia, many iſlands are found which probably were the mountains belonging to that part of the land which we ſuppoſe to have been ſwallowed up by earthquakes; which is rendered probable by the multitude of volcanoes which have been diſcovered in the peninſula of Kamtſkatka. The ſinking of that land, however, and the ſeparation of the two continents, was probably occaſioned by thoſe extraordinary earthquakes mentioned in the hiſtories of the Americans, which formed an era almoſt as memorable as that of the deluge.

5. The quadrupeds and reptiles of America paſſed by different places from the one continent to the other. Among the American beaſts there are many whoſe natures are averſe to cold; ſuch are apes, dantes, crocodiles, &c.—There are others formed to inhabit cold countries; ſuch are martins, rein-deer, and gluttons. The former could not go to America through any country in the frigid zone;—their natures would not have admitted it—they would have periſhed in their paſſage—We cannot indeed imagine what inducement they could have to quit a climate, congenial to their nature, and undertake a journey they knew not whither, through a region whoſe cold they could not endure—How did they know there was a country friendly to their natures in America?

The apes which are in New Spain paſſed there, certainly, from South America. Time was when they did not inhabit that country—and it is known that they came from the South. The center of their population is the country under the equator, and 14 or 15 degrees on each ſide of it. It decreaſes as you depart from this tract on either ſide, till you arrive at the tropics, when it ceaſes, and none are found, except in ſome

* See Clavigero's Hiſt. of Mex. Vol. II. Diſſert. I. p. 216, where all theſe opinions are ſhewn to be highly improbable, not to ſay impoſſible.

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few diſtricts, which, from the peculiarity of their ſituation, are as hot as the equinoctial country. None can imagine that this ſpecies of animals travelled to the new world, through the cold regions of the north. Nor can we believe that they were tranſported thither by men; for, not to mention that ſome of them are of a ferocious diſpoſition, and very unlikely to be ſelected to be companions on a long voyage, to people a new country, there is another ſtill greater difficulty: as they could not have been conducted over the ſeas and countries of the north, on account of the cold, they muſt have been tranſported from the warm countries of the old, to the warm countries of the new world, over a ſea ſubject to a clime not diſſimilar to the native country of thoſe quadrupeds, that is, by the countries of the ſouthern parts of Aſia, to about the ſame latitudes in America, over the Indian and Pacific Oceans—or from the weſtern countries of Africa, to the eaſtern countries of America, over the Atlantic Ocean. If, therefore, men tranſported thoſe animals from the one to the other world, they did it acroſs thoſe ſeas. But was this navigation accidental or deſigned? If the former, how, and why did they carry ſo many animals with them? If the latter, if they were determined to paſs from the old to the new continent, who gave them intelligence of the new world? Who ſhewed them the ſituation of thoſe countries? How did they venture to croſs ſuch vaſt ſeas without a compaſs? In what veſſels did they paſs? If they landed there happily, why does there not remain, among the Americans, ſome memory of their conſtructions? Why—but it is needleſs to ſtart more objections; theſe already mentioned can never be anſwered.

Beſides, in the torrid zone, and the warm climates that border upon it, in the new world, crocodiles are common animals which require a hot or temperate climate, and live alternately on land or in ſweet water: how did ſuch animals paſs there? Not by the north—they could not endure the cold—No one will believe they were tranſported by men—nor yet that they ſwam thither 2000 miles through an ocean of ſalt water.

There remains no other ſolution but that of admitting an ancient union between the equinoctial countries of America and thoſe of Africa—and a connection of the northern countries of America with Europe on the eaſt, and Aſia on the weſt—ſo that there has probably been a period ſince the flood, when there was but ONE continent.—The beaſts of cold climes paſſed over the northern iſthmuſſes, which probably connected Europe, America, and Aſia—and the animals and reptiles peculiar to hot countries, paſſed over the iſthmus that connected South America with Africa—For the reaſons already mentioned induce us to believe that there was formerly a tract of land, which united the moſt eaſtern part of Brazil to the moſt weſtern part of Africa; and that all the ſpace of land may have been ſunk by violent earthquakes, leaving only ſome traces of it in that chain of iſlands of which Cape de Verd, Fernando, de Norona, Aſcenſion and St. Matthew's iſlands make a part; and alſo in thoſe many ſand banks diſcovered by different navigators, and particularly by de Bauche, who ſounded that ſea with great exactneſs. Theſe iſlands and ſand banks may, probably, have been the higheſt parts of that ſunken iſthmus. In like manner it is probable the north-weſtern part of America was united to the north-eaſtern part of Aſia by a neck of land which has been ſunk or waſhed away, and the north-eaſtern parts of America to the north-weſtern parts of Europe, by Greenland, Iceland, &c.

On the whole, we cannot but believe that the quadrupeds and the reptiles of the new world paſſed there by land, and by different routs, from the old continent. All other ſuppoſitions are ſubject to heavy difficulties; and this is not without ſome, which however are not altogether inſurmountable. The greateſt is the improbability of an earthquake ſo great as to ſink a ſpace of land for more than 1500 miles in length, which,

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according to our ſuppoſition, united Africa and South America. But we do not aſcribe this ſtupendous revolution to a ſingle ſhock—it may have been effected by a ſucceſſion of earthquakes. It is well known that they are common in the climates where we ſuppoſe the iſthmus to have been. It is not impoſſible nor improbable, that ſuch an effect ſhould be produced by earthquakes, nor is hiſtory unfurniſhed with ſuch examples to our purpoſe. The earthquake which was felt in Canada in 1663,* overwhelmed a chain of mountains of free ſtone more than 300 miles long, and the whole of that immenſe tract was changed into a plain. How great then muſt have been the convulſion which was occaſioned by thoſe extraordinary earthquakes, mentioned in the hiſtories of America, when the world was thought to be coming to an end!

It may farther be objected to this ſyſtem, that if beaſts paſſed by land from one continent to the other, it is not eaſy to aſſign the cauſe why ſome ſpecies paſſed there without leaving a ſingle individual in the old continent; and on the contrary, that ſome entire ſpecies ſhould remain in the old continent, and not a ſingle individual of them paſs to America. But this objection operates with equal force againſt all other opinions, except that which employs angels in the tranſportation of beaſts. But ſuppoſe it did not, we have a ſatisfactory anſwer to it. All the quadrupeds of the earth are not yet known, we cannot therefore ſay how many are in the one which are not in the other continent. The knowledge of the beſt informed zoologiſts is very imperfect, and they differ among themſelves. The Count de Buffon numbers only two hundred ſpecies of quadrupeds. Bomare, who wrote a little after him, makes them 265; but to ſay how many more there may be, and of what kinds they are, until we have examined the interior regions of Africa, of a great part of Tartary, the country of the Amazons, and the vaſt territory weſt of the Miſſiſſippi, and various other unexplored and extenſive countries, which together conſtitute a great part of the whole globe, would be mere conjecture. No argument, therefore, can be inferred from the difference of the animals in the two continents againſt our ſyſtem, till the animals in theſe unexplored regions ſhall have been examined.†

We have dwelt the longer on this ſubject, as it muſt be intereſting to every inquiſitive mind, and the diſcuſſion of it is blended with much uſeful information.

INHABITANTS.] Having ſtated the preſent population of America, from the beſt *data* we could find, and given the moſt probable accounts of the manner in which it was originally peopled, it will be expected that we now ſay ſomething of its inhabitants, of their character, manners, &c.

The preſent Americans, whoſe number we reckon at about 60 millions, may be divided into two general claſſes—Firſt, the proper Americans, commonly called Indians, ſometimes Aborigines, or thoſe who are deſcended from the firſt inhabitants of the new world, and who have not mixed their blood with the inhabitants of the old continent. Secondly, thoſe who have migrated, or have been tranſported to America, ſince its diſcovery by Columbus, and their deſcendants. The former may be ſubdivided into three claſſes; firſt, the South American Indians, who came over in the manner we have ſuppoſed, from the northern and weſtern parts of Africa, and the ſouthern parts of Aſia and Europe. Secondly, the Mexicans and all the Indians ſouth of the Lakes and weſt of the Miſſiſſippi. Thirdly, the inhabitants of Eſquimaux, Labrador, and the countries around them. The latter may alſo be diſtinguiſhed into three claſſes—Firſt,

* See an account of this earthquake, and of many others which happened in New England, in the third Vol. of the American Muſeum, p. 292, written by Profeſſor Williams, F. A. A. of Cambridge, (N. E.)

† Abbe Clavigero's Hiſt. of Mexico, Vol. II. Diſſ. I.

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Europeans of many different nations, who have migrated to America, and their deſcendants, of unmixed blood:—In this claſs we include, the Spaniards, Engliſh, Scotch, Iriſh, French, Portugueſe, Germans, Dutch, Swedes, &c. both in North and South America. Secondly, Africans who have been tranſported to America and its Iſlands, and their deſcendants. Thirdly, the mixed breeds, called by the Spaniards, *Caſtas*, by the Engliſh Mulattoes, that is, thoſe who are deſcended from an European and an American, or from an European and African, or from an African and American. Leaving the ſecond claſs, viz. the migrants to America ſince its diſcovery by Columbus, and their deſcendants, to be deſcribed when we ſhall treat of the countries they reſpectively inhabit, we ſhall, under this article, confine ourſelves to the proper aboriginal Americans, or Indians.

We begin with the South Americans. Various have been the accounts given of theſe people. Some hiſtorians exalt them to the rank of the beſt and happieſt people on earth; others ſeem unwilling to give them a place among human beings. We preſume theſe hiſtorians, who differ ſo widely, ſpoke of different nations; and on this ground, with proper allowances for exaggeration on both ſides, we may reconcile them. Columbus gives the following account of the Indians of Hiſpaniola, to Ferdinand and Iſabella:

"I ſwear to your majeſties, that there is not a better people in the world than theſe; more affectionate, affable, and mild; they love their neighbours as themſelves; their language is the ſweeteſt, the ſofteſt, and the moſt cheerful, for they always ſpeak ſmiling; and although they go naked, let your majeſties believe me, their cuſtoms are very becoming; and their king, who is ſerved with great majeſty, has ſuch engaging manners, that it gives great pleaſure to ſee him, and alſo to conſider the great retentive faculty of that people, and their deſire of knowledge, which invites them to aſk the cauſes and effects of things." *

Las Caſas, the firſt biſhop of Chiapa, who reſided ſeveral years in different parts of America, ſpeaks thus of them: "The Americans are a people of a bright and lively genius, eaſy to be taught, and to apprehend every good doctrine, extremely ready to embrace our faith, and the people, of all others in the world, who feel leaſt embarraſſment by it." In another place, this writer ſays, "The Indians have as good an underſtanding, and acute a genius, as much docility and capacity for the moral and ſpeculative ſciences, and are, in moſt inſtances, as rational in their political government, as appears from many of their very prudent laws, and are as far advanced in our faith and religion, in good cuſtoms and civilization, where they have been taught by perſons of religious and exemplary life, and are arriving at refinement and poliſh as faſt as any nation ever did ſince the times of the apoſtles."

Doctor Robertſon, ſpeaking of the Mexicans and Peruvians, whom he is not diſpoſed to rank with thoſe nations which merit the name of civiliſed, has the following remarks—"When compared with other parts of the new world, Mexico and Peru may be conſidered as poliſhed ſtates. Inſtead of ſmall independent, hoſtile tribes, ſtruggling for ſubſiſtence amidſt woods and marſhes, ſtrangers to induſtry and arts, unacquainted with ſubordination, and almoſt without the appearance of regular government, we find countries of great extent ſubjected to the dominion of one ſovereign, the inhabitants collected together in cities, the wiſdom and foreſight of rulers employed in providing for the maintenance and ſecurity of the people, the empire of laws in ſome meaſure eſtabliſhed, the authority of religion recognized, many of the arts eſſen-

* Hiſt. Columb. Ch. xxxii.

tial

tial to life brought to ſome degree of maturity, and the dawn of ſuch as are ornamental beginning to appear." Theſe are teſtimonies reſpecting the Indians who inhabit the more northern parts of South America, and the iſlands; who appear to have made greater advances in civilization than thoſe farther ſouth, concerning whom our information is very imperfect.

Charlevoix, in his hiſtory of Paraguay, has collected from the Jeſuits, perhaps the beſt information reſpecting the more ſouthern Indians. Comparing his particular deſcriptions of the numerous nations who inhabit the ſouthern diviſion of South America, we give the following as the leading traits in their general character. They are generally of an olive complection, ſome darker, others lighter, and ſome as white as the Spaniards. Their ſtature is rather below than above the middling ſize; though ſome nations rank among the talleſt of the human ſpecies—moſt of them are thick legged and jointed, and have round and flat faces.

Almoſt all the men and children, in the warm climates, and in the ſummer, in colder regions, go quite naked. The women wear no more covering than the moſt relaxed modeſty ſeems abſolutely to require. Every nation have a different dialect, and a different mode of adorning themſelves. The clothing of ſuch as make uſe of it, is made of the ſkins of beaſts, of feathers ſewed together, and in the ſouthern and colder regions, where they raiſe ſheep, of wool manufactured into ſtuffs and blankets. They are repreſented as almoſt univerſally addicted to drunkenneſs. There ſeems to be no other vice common to them all. A few of them are cannibals, and ſome nations are idolators; in general they have ſome notions of a Supreme Being, and have words in their various languages to expreſs their ideas of him. They believe in the immortality of the ſoul, and have ſome imperfect ideas of future rewards and puniſhments. They are univerſally addicted to various ſuperſtitions, and have much to do with witches and evil ſpirits.*—A great proportion of them lead a wandering life, are extremely indolent, dirty and wretched, living on fiſh, and the fleſh of the various wild animals, birds, and even reptiles which inhabit the foreſts.—"All the Indians of South America," ſays Charlevoix, "have hot ſtomachs," which can digeſt all ſorts of food, and in great quantities, and they are in general "exceſſively voracious." Their notions of religion and government, with a few exceptions, are very rude. Some nations live compactly in towns and cultivate the earth, raiſing, among other productions, wheat, which they bruiſe between ſtones, and make into cakes. Some nations are repreſented as dull, cruel, and inconſtant—others as fierce, cunning, and thieviſh—others as humane, ingenuous, and hoſpitable—and in general they are kind and attentive to ſtrangers, ſo long as they are well uſed by them; and we ſeldom read of their being firſt in a quarrel with thoſe who paſs their territories, or ſojourn among them. The aſtoniſhing ſucceſs of the Jeſuits in converting ſuch multitudes of them to their faith, is a convictive proof of their capacity to receive inſtruction; of their docility, humanity, and friendly diſpoſitions.

All accounts agree that the middle and ſouthern parts of South America are very thinly inhabited, being interſperſed with extenſive ridges of mountains, immenſe barren plains, and numerous marſhes.

* Father *Paſtor*, a Jeſuit, one day viſited one of the old women of the Abipone nation, a reputed witch, and at the point of death, and told her that if ſhe died without baptiſm, her ſoul would be eternally tormented by the devils. She very calmly anſwered, that they had been her friends for a long time, and ſhe was therefore very ſure they would do her no harm. Hiſt. Par. vol. i. p. 406.

As to the ſecond claſs of American Indians, who formerly inhabited, and who yet inhabit Mexico and the country ſouth of the lakes and weſt of the Miſſiſſippi, and who came over, as we have ſuppoſed, from the north-eaſt parts of Aſia; they ſeem, from whatever cauſe, to be advanced ſomewhat higher in the ſcale of human beings than the South Americans, if we except the Peruvians, who appear to have made greater progreſs in civilization than even the Mexicans. Concerning the nations of the vaſt country of Anahuac or New Spain, compoſing a large portion of the ſecond claſs of the proper Americans, the Abbe Clavigero has the following obſervations: "We have had intimate commerce for many years with the Americans, have lived ſeveral years in a ſeminary deſtined for their inſtruction, had ſome Indians among our pupils, had particular knowledge of many American rectors, many nobles and numerous artiſts—attentively obſerved their character, their genius, their diſpoſitions and manner of thinking; and have examined, beſides, with the utmoſt diligence, their ancient hiſtory, their religion, their government, their laws, and their cuſtoms; after ſuch long experience and ſtudy of them, from which we imagine ourſelves able to decide without danger of erring, we declare that the mental qualities of the American Indians are not in the leaſt degree inferior to thoſe of the Europeans—that they are capable of all, even the moſt abſtract ſciences, and that if equal care and pains were taken in their education, we ſhould ſee riſe among them philoſophers, mathematicians, and divines, who would rival the firſt in Europe. But it is not poſſible to make great progreſs in the ſciences, in the midſt of a life of miſery, ſervitude, and oppreſſion.—Their ancient government, their laws, and their arts, evidently demonſtrate that they ſuffered no want of genius."

This ſame author, who appears to be a competent judge, deſcribes the Mexicans as being of a good ſtature, rather exceeding the middle ſize—well-proportioned in all their limbs—as having a fine olive complexion—narrow foreheads—black eyes—clean, firm, regular white teeth—thick, black, coarſe gloſſy hair—thin beards, and generally no hair on their legs, thighs, and arms. They are neither very beautiful nor the reverſe, but hold a middle place between the extremes. Some of the women are fair and beautiful. Deformities are ſcarcely known among them. Their ſenſes are very acute, eſpecially that of ſight, which they enjoy unimpaired to the greateſt age. They are moderate eaters, but much addicted to intemperance in drinking, which, as far as we know, is true of all the American Indians. They are patient of injuries and hardſhips, and grateful for benefits. Good faith is not ſo much reſpected as it deſerves to be. They are naturally unſocial, ſerious, and auſtere, and are more anxious to puniſh crimes than to reward virtues. Generoſity and perfect diſintereſtedneſs are ſtriking traits in their character. Their religion is blended with much ſuperſtition; and ſome of the more ignorant are very prone to idolatry.

The reſpect paid by children to their parents, and by the young to the old, among thoſe people, is highly commendable. Parents are fond of their children. The affection of huſbands for their wives is leſs than the wives for their huſbands; and it is very common for men to love their neighbours' wives better than their own. Courage and cowardice ſeem alternately to affect their minds, and it is difficult to determine which predominates. They can meet dangers in war, and ſuch as proceed from natural cauſes, with great intrepidity, but are panic ſtruck by the ſtern look of a Spaniard. On the whole, their character, like that of all other nations, is a mixture of good and bad.

Of their morality, the following exhortation of a Mexican to his ſon, may ſerve as a ſpecimen: "My ſon, who art come into the light from the womb of thy mother like a chicken from the egg, and like it art preparing to fly through the world, we

know not how long Heaven will grant to us the enjoyment of that precious gem which we poſſeſs in thee; but however ſhort the period, endeavour to live exactly, praying God continually to aſſiſt thee. He created thee: thou art his property. He is thy father, and loves thee ſtill more than I do; repoſe in him thy thoughts, and day and night direct thy ſighs to him. Reverence and ſalute thy elders, and hold no one in contempt. To the poor and diſtreſſed be not dumb, but rather uſe words of comfort. Honour all perſons, particularly thy parents, to whom thou oweſt obedience, reſpect, and ſervice. Guard againſt imitating the example of thoſe wicked ſons, who, like brutes that are deprived of reaſon, neither reverence their parents, liſten to their inſtruction, nor ſubmit to their correction; becauſe whoever follows their ſteps will have an unhappy end, will die in a deſperate or ſudden manner, or will be killed and devoured by wild beaſts.

" Mock not, my ſon, the aged or the imperfect. Scorn not him whom you ſee fall into ſome folly or tranſgreſſion, nor make him reproaches; but reſtrain thyſelf, and beware leſt thou fall into the ſame error which offends thee in another. Go not where thou art not called, nor interfere in that which does not concern thee. Endeavour to manifeſt thy good breeding in all thy words and actions. In converſation, do not lay thy hands upon another, nor ſpeak too much, nor interrupt or diſturb another's diſcourſe. When any one diſcourſes with thee, hear him attentively, and hold thyſelf in an eaſy attitude, neither playing with thy feet, nor putting thy mantle to thy mouth, nor ſpitting too often, nor looking about you here and there, nor riſing up frequently if thou art ſitting; for ſuch actions are indications of levity and low breeding."—He proceeds to mention ſeveral particular vices which are to be avoided, and concludes—" Steal not, nor give thyſelf to gaming; otherwiſe thou wilt be a diſgrace to thy parents, whom thou oughteſt rather to honour for the education they have given thee. If thou wilt be virtuous, thy example will put the wicked to ſhame. No more, my ſon; enough hath been ſaid in diſcharge of the duties of a father. With theſe counſels I wiſh to fortify thy mind. Refuſe them not, nor act in contradiction to them; for on them thy life and all thy happineſs depend."

Although ſo much cannot be ſaid with truth, perhaps, in favour of the more northern Indians, whom we have included in the ſecond claſs, owing to the inferiority of their advantages, yet we are far from thinking them inferior in point of corporeal or mental endowments, to the Mexicans. In their complection, ſize, and form, they are not in general unlike the Mexicans. In ſocial and domeſtic virtues, in agriculture, arts, and manufactures, they are far behind the Mexicans—in their hoſpitality, equal—and in their eloquence in council, and bravery in war, perhaps ſuperior. Their mode of life, and the ſtate of ſociety among them, afford few objects for the diſplay either of their literary or political abilities.

Monſ. Buffon has given an humiliating picture of the Aborigines of North America, which, as it is a falſe one, I ſhall not give the reader. Mr. Jefferſon's anſwer to M. Buffon, however, is ſo full of the moſt valuable information on this ſubject, that it muſt not be omitted in this place.—" Of the Indians of South America," ſays Mr. Jefferſon, " I know nothing; for I would not honour with the appellation of knowledge, what I derive from the fables publiſhed of them. Theſe I believe to be juſt as true as the fables of Æſop. This belief is founded on what I have ſeen of man, white, red, and black, and what has been written of him by authors, enlightened themſelves, and writing amidſt an enlightened people. The Indian of North America being more within our reach, I can ſpeak of him ſomewhat from my own knowledge, but more from the information of others better acquainted with him, and on whoſe truth and judgement

judgement I can rely. From theſe ſources I am able to ſay, in contradiction to this repreſentation, that he is neither more defective in ardor, nor more impotent with his female, than the white reduced to the ſame diet and exerciſe: That he is brave, when an enterprize depends on bravery; education with him making the point of honour conſiſt in the deſtruction of an enemy by ſtratagem, and in the preſervation of his own perſon free from injury; or perhaps this is nature; while it is education which teaches us to honour force more than fineſſe: that he will defend himſelf againſt an hoſt of enemies, always chuſing to be killed, rather than to ſurrender, though it be to the whites, who he knows will treat him well: that in other ſituations alſo he meets death with more deliberation, and endures tortures with a firmneſs unknown almoſt to religious enthuſiaſm with us: that he is affectionate to his children, careful of them, and indulgent in the extreme: that his affections comprehend his other connections, weakened, as with us, from circle to circle, as they recede from the center: that his friendſhips are ſtrong and faithful to the uttermoſt * extremity: that his ſenſibility is keen, even the warriors weeping moſt bitterly on the loſs of their children, though in general they endeavour to appear ſuperior to human events: that his vivacity and activity of mind is equal to our's in the ſame ſituation; hence his eagerneſs for hunting, and for games of chance. The women are ſubmitted to unjuſt drudgery. This I believe is the caſe with every barbarous people. With ſuch, force is law. The ſtronger ſex therefore impoſes on the weaker. It is civilization alone which replaces women in the enjoyment of their natural equality. That firſt teaches us to ſubdue the ſelfiſh paſſions, and to reſpect thoſe rights in others which we value in ourſelves. Were we in equal barbariſm, our females would be equal drudges. The man with them is leſs ſtrong than with us, but their women ſtronger than our's; and both for the ſame obvious reaſon; becauſe our man and their woman is habituated to labour, and formed by it. With both races, the ſex which is indulged with eaſe is leaſt athletic. An Indian man is ſmall in the hand and wriſt, for the ſame reaſon for which a ſailor is large and ſtrong in the arms and ſhoulders, and a porter in the legs and thighs.—They raiſe fewer children than we do. The cauſes of this are to be found, not in a difference of nature, but of circumſtance. The women very frequently attending the men in their parties of war and of hunting, child-bearing becomes extremely inconvenient to them. It is ſaid, therefore, that they have learnt the practice of procuring abortion by the uſe of ſome vegetable; and that it even extends to prevent conception for a conſiderable time after. During theſe parties they are expoſed to numerous hazards, to exceſſive exertions, to the greateſt extremities of hunger. Even at their homes the nation depends for food, through a certain part of every year, on the gleanings of the foreſt: that is, they experience a famine once in every year. With all animals, if the female be badly fed, or not fed at all, her young periſh: and if both male and female be reduced to like want, generation becomes leſs active, leſs productive. To the obſtacles then of

* A remarkable inſtance of this appeared in the caſe of the late Col. Byrd, who was ſent to the Cherokee nation to tranſact ſome buſineſs with them. It happened that ſome of our diſorderly people had juſt killed one or two of that nation. It was therefore propoſed in the council of the Cherokees that Colonel Byrd ſhould be put to death, in revenge for the loſs of their countrymen. Among them was a chief called Silouee, who, on ſome former occaſion had contracted an acquaintance and friendſhip with Colonel Byrd. He came to him every night in his tent, and told him not to be afraid, they ſhould not kill him. After many days deliberation, however, the determination was, contrary to Silouee's expectation, that Byrd ſhould be put to death, and ſome warriors were diſpatched as executioners. Silouee attended them, and when they entered the tent, he threw himſelf between them and Byrd, and ſaid to the warriors, "this man is my friend: before you get at him, you muſt kill me." On which they returned, and the council reſpected the principle ſo much as to recede from their determination.

want and hazard, which nature has oppoſed to the multiplication of wild animals, for the purpoſe of reſtraining their numbers within certain bounds, thoſe of labour and of voluntary abortion are added with the Indian. No wonder then if they multiply leſs than we do. Where food is regularly ſupplied, a ſingle farm will ſhew more of cattle, than a whole country of foreſts can of buffaloes. The ſame Indian women, when married to white traders, who feed them and their children plentifully and regularly, who exempt them from exceſſive drudgery, who keep them ſtationary and unexpoſed to accident, produce and raiſe as many children as the white women. Inſtances are known, under theſe circumſtances, of their rearing a dozen children. An inhuman practice once prevailed in this country of making ſlaves of the Indians. It is a fact well known with us, that the Indian women ſo enſlaved, produced and raiſed as numerous families as either the whites or blacks among whom they lived.—It has been ſaid, that Indians have leſs hair than the whites, except on the head. But this is a fact of which fair proof can ſcarcely be had. With them it is diſgraceful to be hairy on the body. They ſay it likens them to hogs. They therefore pluck the hair as faſt as it appears. But the traders who marry their women, and prevail on them to diſcontinue this practice, ſay, that nature is the ſame with them as with the whites. Nor, if the fact be true, is the conſequence neceſſary which has been drawn from it. Negroes have notoriouſly leſs hair than the whites; yet they are more ardent. But if cold and moiſture be the agents of nature for diminiſhing the races of animals, how comes ſhe all at once to ſuſpend their operation as to the phyſical man of the new world, and to let looſe their influence on his moral faculties? How has this combination of the elements and other phyſical cauſes, ſo contrary to the enlargement of animal nature in this new world, theſe obſtacles to the developement and formation of great germs, been arreſted and ſuſpended, ſo as to permit the human body to acquire its juſt dimenſions; and by what inconceivable proceſs has their action been directed on his mind alone? To judge of the truth of this, to form a juſt eſtimate of their genius and mental powers, more facts are wanting, and great allowance to be made for thoſe circumſtances of their ſituation which call for a diſplay of particular talents only. This done, we ſhall probably find that they are formed in mind as well as in body, on the ſame model with the * 'Homo ſapiens Europæus.' The principles of their ſociety forbidding all compulſion, they are to be led to duty and to enterprize by perſonal influence and perſuaſion. Hence eloquence in council, bravery and addreſs in war, become the foundations of all conſequence with them. To theſe acquirements all their faculties are directed. Of their bravery and addreſs in war we have multiplied proofs, becauſe we have been the ſubjects on which they were exerciſed. Of their eminence in oratory we have fewer examples, becauſe it is diſplayed chiefly in their own councils. Some, however, we have of very ſuperior luſtre. I may challenge the whole orations of Demoſthenes and Cicero, and of any more eminent orator, if Europe has furniſhed a more eminent, to produce a ſingle paſſage ſuperior to the ſpeech of Logan, a Mingo chief, to Lord Dunmore, when governor of this ſtate. And, as a teſtimony of their talents in this line, I beg leave to introduce it, firſt ſtating the incidents neceſſary for underſtanding it. In the ſpring of the year 1774, a robbery and murder were committed on an inhabitant of the frontiers of Virginia, by two Indians of the Shawanee tribe. The neighbouring whites, according to their cuſtom, undertook to puniſh this outrage in a ſummary way. Col. Creſap, a man infamous for the many murders he had committed on thoſe much

* Linn. Syſt. Definition of a Man.

injured

injured people, collected a party, and proceeded down the Kanhaway in queſt of vengeance. Unfortunately a canoe of women and children, with one man only, was ſeen coming from the oppoſite ſhore, unarmed, and unſuſpecting an hoſtile attack from the whites. Creſap and his party concealed themſelves on the bank of the river, and the moment the canoe reached the ſhore, ſingled out their objects, and, at one fire, killed every perſon in it. This happened to be the family of Logan, who had long been diſtinguiſhed as a friend of the whites. This unworthy return provoked his vengeance. He accordingly ſignalized himſelf in the war which enſued. In the autumn of the ſame year, a deciſive battle was fought at the mouth of the Great Kanhaway, between the collect forces of the Shawanees, Mingoes, and Delawares, and a detachment of the Virginia militia. The Indians were defeated, and ſued for peace. Logan however diſdained to be ſeen among the ſuppliants. But, leſt the ſincerity of a treaty ſhould be diſtruſted, from which ſo diſtinguiſhed a chief abſented himſelf, he ſent by a meſſenger the following ſpeech to be delivered to Lord Dunmore:

'I appeal to any white man to ſay, if ever he entered Logan's cabin hungry, and he gave him not meat; if he ever came cold and naked, and he clothed him not. During the courſe of the laſt long and bloody war, Logan remained idle in his cabin, an advocate for peace. Such was my love for the whites, that my countrymen pointed as they paſſed, and ſaid, 'Logan is the friend of white men.' I had even thought to have lived with you, but for the injuries of one man. Col. Creſap, the laſt ſpring, in cold blood, and unprovoked, murdered all the relations of Logan, not ſparing even my women and children. There runs not a drop of my blood in the veins of any living creature. This called on me for revenge. I have ſought it: I have killed many: I have fully glutted my vengeance. For my country, I rejoice at the beams of peace. But do not harbour a thought that mine is the joy of fear. Logan never felt fear. He will not turn on his heel to ſave his life. Who is there to mourn for Logan? —Not one.'

Before we condemn the Indians of this continent as wanting genius, we muſt conſider that letters have not yet been introduced among them. Were we to compare them in their preſent ſtate with the Europeans north of the Alps, when the Roman arms and arts firſt croſſed thoſe mountains, the compariſon would be unequal, becauſe at that time, thoſe parts of Europe were ſwarming with numbers; becauſe numbers produce emulation, and multiply the chances of improvement, and one improvement begets another. Yet I may ſafely aſk, how many good poets, how many able mathematicians, how many great inventors in arts or ſciences, had Europe, north of the Alps, then produced? And it was ſixteen centuries after this before a Newton could be formed. I do not mean to deny, that there are varieties in the race of man, diſtinguiſhed by their powers both of body and mind. I believe there are, as I ſee to be the caſe in the races of other animals. I only mean to ſuggeſt a doubt, whether the bulk and faculties of animals depend on the ſide of the Atlantic on which their food happens to grow, or which furniſhes the elements of which they are compounded? Whether nature has enliſted herſelf as a Cis or Trans-Atlantic partiſan?

No people in the world have higher notions of military honour than the Indians. The fortitude, the calmneſs and even exultation which they manifeſt while under the extremeſt torture, is owing to their education, to their exalted ideas of military glory, and their rude notions of future happineſs, which they believe they ſhall forfeit by the leaſt manifeſtation of fear, or uneaſineſs, under their ſufferings. They are as bitter and determined in their reſentments as they are ſincere in their friendſhips, and often

purſue their enemies ſeveral hundred miles through the woods, ſurmounting every difficulty, in order to be revenged.* In their public councils they obſerve the greateſt decorum. In the foremoſt rank ſit the old men, who are the counſellors, then warriors, and next the women and children. As they keep no records, it is the buſineſs of the women to notice every thing that paſſes, to imprint it on their memories, and tell it to their children. They are, in ſhort, the records of the council; and with ſurpriſing exactneſs, preſerve the ſtipulations of treaties entered into a hundred years back. Their kindneſs and hoſpitality is ſcarcely equalled by any civilized nation. Their politeneſs in converſation is even carried to exceſs, ſince it does not allow them to contradict any thing that is aſſerted in their preſence. In ſhort, there appears to be much truth in Dr. Franklin's obſervation, "We call them ſavages, becauſe their manners differ from ours, which we think the perfection of civility; they think the ſame of their's."

Society among the Indians, we are ſorry to ſay, has not been improved, but in moſt inſtances corrupted, by their intercourſe with Europeans. It is believed by many, that the wars with them generally originate in the injuſtice, avarice, and pride of their oppoſers and vanquiſhers. None, however, can juſtify their mode of carrying on a war when once it has commenced. If the guilty, or thoſe who ſhould conceal and defend the guilty, were the ſole objects of their vengeance, we could not condemn them. But when thoſe who never did or meant them an injury, when defenceleſs women, and children, and even babes, are made the victims of their ſhocking barbarity, we cannot but deeply lament their want of that humanity, and juſt diſcrimination between the innocent and the guilty, which are the peculiar fruits of civilization. We wiſh we could ſay, that they never had any examples of indiſcriminate barbarity from their neighbours, who ought to have taught them better.

The Indians many times treat their priſoners in the moſt cruel and barbarous manner; but they often uſe them with the greateſt humanity, feeding and clothing them, even better than themſelves, and adopting them as fathers, mothers, ſons, and daugh-

* The following anecdote of an Algonquin woman, we find adduced as a remarkable proof of their innate thirſt of blood. That nation being at war with the Iroquois, ſhe happened to be taken priſoner, and was carried to one of the villages belonging to them. Here ſhe was ſtripped naked, and her hands and feet bound with ropes in one of their cabins. In this condition ſhe remained ten days, the ſavages ſleeping round her every night. The eleventh night, while they were aſleep, ſhe found means to diſengage one of her hands, with which ſhe immediately freed herſelf from the ropes, and went to the door. Though ſhe had now an opportunity of eſcaping unperceived, her revengeful temper could not let ſlip ſo favourable an opportunity of killing one of her enemies. The attempt was manifeſtly at the hazard of her own life; yet, ſnatching up a hatchet, ſhe killed the ſavage that lay next her; and ſpringing out of the cabin, concealed herſelf in a hollow tree which ſhe had obſerved the day before. The groans of the dying perſon ſoon alarmed the other ſavages, and the young ones immediately ſet out in purſuit of her.—Perceiving from her tree, that they all took their courſe one way, and that no ſavage was near her, ſhe left her ſanctuary, and, flying by an oppoſite direction, ran into a foreſt without being perceived. The ſecond day after this happened, her foot ſteps were diſcovered; and they purſued her with ſuch expedition, that the third day ſhe diſcovered her enemies at her heels. Upon this ſhe threw herſelf into a pond of water; and, diving among ſome weeds and bulruſhes, ſhe could juſt breathe above water without being perceived. Her purſuers, after making the moſt diligent ſearch, were forced to return.—For thirty-five days this woman held on her courſe through woods and deſarts, without any other ſuſtenance than roots and wild berries. When ſhe came to the River St. Lawrance, ſhe made with her own hands a kind of a wicker raft, on which ſhe croſſed it. As ſhe went by the French for Trois Rivieres, without well knowing where ſhe was, ſhe perceived a canoe full of ſavages; and fearing they might be Iroquois, ran again into the woods, where ſhe remained till ſun ſet.—Continuing her courſe ſoon after, ſhe ſaw Trois Rivieres; and was then diſcovered by a party whom ſhe knew to be Hurons, a nation in alliance with the Algonquins. She then ſquatted down behind a buſh, called out to them that ſhe was not in a condition to be ſeen, becauſe ſhe was naked. They immediately threw her a blanket, and then conducted her to the fort, where ſhe recounted her ſtory.

ters, brothers, and ſiſters, and treating them in all reſpects as ſuch. There have been inſtances of whites, thus adopted, while young, who have become chiefs of the nations that adopted them. Compulſion has frequently been found neceſſary to ſeparate from their Indian relations, thoſe white priſoners who have reſided a few years with them; and many men and women, who have been ranſomed and delivered up by the Indians to their white parents or relations, have returned back to their Indian friends, and of choice, married and ſettled among them.

A late enterpriſing traveller * into the country weſt of the Miſſiſſippi, who took his courſe weſt ſouth-weſt from the poſts on the lakes, and penetrated to the head of the Miſſouri, and thence due weſt, till he arrived within about 500 miles of the Pacific Ocean, informs, that beyond the Miſſouri he met with many powerful nations of Indians, who were in general courteous and hoſpitable. The nations which he viſited to the weſtward appeared to be a poliſhed, civilized people, having regularly built towns, and enjoying a ſtate of ſociety not far removed from the European; and in order to be perfectly equal, wanting only the uſe of iron and ſteel. Their clothing is of ſkins, cut in an elegant manner, and in many reſpects preferable to the garments in uſe among the whites.† Adjacent to theſe nations is a vaſt range of mountains, which may be called the *Allegany* of the weſtern parts of America, and ſerves as a barrier againſt the too frequent incurſions of the coaſt Indians, who, Mr. Stewart relates, appear to be inveterate enemies to the tribes eaſtward of the mountains.

The Indians are unacquainted with letters, and their hiſtory is preſerved in ſome few inſtances by hieroglyphic paintings and ſculpture, but principally by tradition. They often diſcover great ingenuity in communicating information to the abſent. Of the following inſtance of Indian hieroglyphic writing, Doctor Mitchell, who in a very obliging manner communicated it to the Author, was an eye-witneſs.

Dr. Mitchell, in company with ſeveral other gentlemen, as they were proceeding up Onondago river, to an Indian treaty, overtook ſeveral canoes of Seneka Indians, who encamped with them at night near fort Brewington; and the next day proving rainy, they continued in company till the weather became ſo favourable as to permit them to croſs the Oneida Lake. During the ſtorm, one of the Indian canoes ſtove, and became unfit for ſervice. The commiſſioners took the crew on board their boat, and carried them to a landing place ſome diſtance up Wood Creek. Here one of them, before he left the water, took the following method to let his companions, who were left behind, know when and whither they had proceeded. He took a piece of wood, and hewed it flat and ſmooth, and then raked his fire for a ſuitable coal, with which he rudely delineated, on the ſlab, the figure of an Indian carrying a gun reverſed upon his ſhoulder. In front of him he drew a crooked line, which reached to a man with a long coat and a cocked hat, and holding a cane in his hand; and behind him a framed houſe. He then took a ſtrait pole, and tied ſome weeds and graſs upon one end of it, and fixed the other in the earth, in ſuch a manner, that, in the poſition the ſun then was, which was ſix o'clock in the morning, it caſt no ſhadow—or, in other words, he pointed it exactly towards the ſun. The meaning of all, was this—"Suſquewewah (the name of the Indian) left this ſpot at ſix o'clock in the morning, or when the ſun was in the place where the pole pointed, and has proceeded up Wood Creek, (which is remarkably crooked) to the ſettlement where the commiſſioners of the

* Mr. Stewart.

† This information of Mr. Stewart's ſerves to confirm the accounts given of the kingdom of *Tollan*, by the Spaniards who journeyed far north in 1606, and of whoſe diſcoveries we have already given an account in page 78.

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State of New York are aſſembled to hold a treaty with the Indians."—All theſe *inſignia* were arranged ſo conſpicuouſly on the margin of the creek, that his companions behind could ſcarcely avoid obſerving them as they paſſed.

In the interior parts of America various monuments of art have been found, which diſcover greater ingenuity in their conſtruction, than the preſent generation of Indians appear to poſſeſs.—Two miles weſt of the Geneſſee river, in the State of New York, we have been informed,* are the remains of an ancient Indian Fort. It encloſes about 4 acres—is encompaſſed with a ditch 8 feet wide and 5 or 6 feet deep, and has ſix gate ways. Its form is circular, except on one part, which is defended by nature with a high bank, at the foot of which is a fine ſtream of water; there is an appearance of there having been a deep covered way through the middle of the bank to the water. Some of the trees on the bank and in the ditch look as if they had been growing 150 or 200 years. Half a mile ſouth, on an eminence, are the ruins of another Indian fortified town, of ſmaller dimenſions, and more advantageouſly ſituated for defence. The old Indians ſay theſe forts were built before the Senakas were admitted into confederacy with the Mohawks, Onondagos, Oneidas and Cayogas, and while the Senakas were at war with the Miſſiſſuages, and other Indians, on the great lakes, which Mr. Kirkland conjectures, from various accounts that he received from different tribes, was at leaſt 300 years ago.

A few miles from the above-mentioned forts, at a place which the Senakas call Tegateenedaghque, ſignifying a town with a fort at each end, are the remains of two other forts, conſtructed nearly in the ſame form, with ſix gates, a ditch, and a ſtream of water, and a covered way to it.—Near the northern fort, are the ruins of a funeral pile, 6 feet high, and 20 or 30 feet diameter, where were buried 800 Indians, who, according to tradition, fell in a famous battle fought at this place, between the Senakas, who were the victors, and the weſtern Indians. The weapons of war then in uſe were bows and arrows, the ſpear or javelin pointed with bone, and the war club, or death mall. When the former ſort of weapons were expended, they came to cloſe engagement with the latter. The warriors wore a ſhort jacket made of willow ſticks or of mooſe wood, laced tight round their bodies—on their heads they wore a cap of the ſame kind, but commonly wove double, the better to ſecure them againſt a mortal blow from the death-mall. The battle above mentioned was fought, ſome of the Indians ſay 300, ſome 400, and ſome 500 lives or ages ago, and long before the arrival of the Europeans. They commonly reckon a life or an age, one hundred winters or colds.

Mr. Kirkland obſerves, that there are ſimilar veſtiges of ancient fortified towns throughout the extenſive territories of the Six Nations, and, by Indian report, in various other parts, and particularly on a branch of the Delaware river, which appear to be very ancient. He adds, " I find on inquiring, that a tradition prevails among the Indians in general, that all Indians came from the weſt." This is a confirmation of the opinion that this ſecond claſs of Indians, of whom we have been ſpeaking, and of which the Six Nations make a part, came over from the north-eaſt of Aſia, to the north-weſt coaſt of America, whence they migrated ſouth towards Mexico, and eaſtward into the preſent territory of the United States.

Judging of the ancient Indians from the traditionary accounts of them, and the ruins we have been deſcribing, we are led to conceive of them as a more civilized, ingenious, and warlike people than their deſcendants at the preſent time. We are at a loſs for

* By the Rev. Mr. Kirkland, Miſſionary to the Six Nations, who viſited this Fort, in 88.

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the cauſes of their degeneracy, unleſs we mention as ſuch the introduction of ſpirituous liquors among them, a deep ſenſe of their inferiority in military ſkill to the white people, and their chagrin and broken heartedneſs, at the loſs of their lands, and being forced to give place to their ſuppoſed enemies.

The third claſs of American Indians, viz. thoſe who inhabit Eſquimaux, Labrador, and the countries around, are much leſs known than either of the afore-mentioned claſſes. Thoſe who profeſs to be beſt acquainted with them ſay, they differ in ſize and ſhape from the other American Indians, and reſemble the Laplanders, and Samoieds, of Europe, from whom it is conjectured they deſcended.*

In the years 1771, and 1772, Mr. Hearne, an ingenious young gentleman, travelled many hundred miles into theſe dreary countries, (for ſuch he found them) and in his journal draws a plain, artleſs picture of the ſavage modes of life, the ſcanty means of ſubſiſtance, and the ſingular wretchedneſs in almoſt every reſpect, of the various tribes, who, without fixed habitations, paſs their lives in roving over dreary deſerts and frozen lakes, of the extenſive tract of continent through which he paſſed.† The following extracts from his Journal will give the reader a better and more juſt idea of theſe Indians, than any accounts of them which the author can furniſh from any other ſource.

"We arrived at the Copper-mine river on the 13th of July, and as I found afterwards, about forty miles from its exit into the ſea. On our arrival at the river, the Indians diſpatched three men before, as ſpies, to ſee if any Eſquimaux Indians were about the river: and on the 15th of the ſame month, as I was continuing my ſurvey towards the mouth of the river, I met the ſpies, who informed me there were five tents of Eſquimaux on the weſt ſide of the river, and by their accounts of the diſtance, I judged they were about twelve miles off. On receiving this news, no more attention was paid to my ſurvey, but their whole thought was engaged on planning the beſt method of ſtealing on them the enſuing night, and killing them while aſleep. The better to complete their deſign it was neceſſary to croſs the river, and by the account of the ſpies, no place was ſo proper for that purpoſe as where we were, it being fine and ſmooth and at ſome diſtance from any cataract. Accordingly, after they had put their guns, targets, ſpears, &c. in order, we were ferried over the river, the doing of which (as we had only three canoes) took up a conſiderable time. It muſt be obſerved that before we ſet out on the weſt ſide, all the men painted their targets, ſome with the image of the Sun, others with the Moon, others with different kinds of birds and beaſts of prey, and ſome had the images of fairies, and other imaginary beings on them, which, according to their ſilly imaginations, are inhabitants of the different elements, as the earth, ſea, air, &c. By a ſtrict inquiry into the reaſon of this ſuperſtition, I found that each man had the image of that being painted on his target, which he relied moſt on for ſucceſs in the intended battle with the Eſquimaux: and ſome were contented with a ſingle repreſentation, whilſt others, doubtful, I ſuppoſe, of the power of any ſingle being, would have their targets covered to the very margin with hieroglyphics, quite unintelligible.

* Crantz, however, is of a different opinion, as will be mentioned further on.

† Mr. Hearne ſet out on his tour from Prince of Wales' fort on Churchill river, N. Lat. 58° 47′, W. Long. 97° 7′, and travelled nearly 1300 miles in a north-weſterly direction. His whole track, to the northward of 61° N. Lat. lay nearly 600 miles due Weſt from the weſtern coaſt of Hudſon's bay. His Indian guides aſſured him there were vaſt tracts of land, ſtretching further in the ſame direction. Hence it appears that a paſſage into the Pacific ocean, round the N. Weſt part of America, is clearly impracticable.

" This piece of ſuperſtition being completed, we began to advance towards the tents of the Eſquimaux, always walking in low grounds, and being very careful how we croſſed any hills, for fear of being ſeen by the inhabitants. The number of my gang being ſo far ſuperior to the five tents of Eſquimaux, and the warlike manner in which they were equipped, in proportion to what might be expected of the poor Eſquimaux, rendered a total maſſacre inevitable, unleſs kind Providence ſhould work a miracle for their preſervation. The land was ſo ſituated that we walked under cover of the hills till we came within 200 yards of their tents, where the Indians that were with me lay ſome time in ambuſh, watching the motions of the Eſquimaux (for we were in full ſight of their tents). The Indians adviſed me to ſtay here till the fight was over, with which I would by no means comply, for I thought when the Eſquimaux were ſurpriſed, they would fly every way for refuge, and if they found me alone, not knowing me from an enemy, they would lay violent hands on me when there were none to aſſiſt. I therefore determined to accompany them, aſſuring them at the ſame time that I would have no hand in the murder unleſs I found it neceſſary for my own ſafety. They ſeemed highly pleaſed with my propoſal, and directly fixed a ſpear and bayonet for me, but I had no target. By the time this was all ſettled it was near one o'clock in the morning, when finding all the Eſquimaux aſleep in their tents, they ran on them without being diſcovered, until they came cloſe to their very doors. They then began the cruel maſſacre, while I ſtood neuter in the rear, and in a few ſeconds a ſcene truly ſhocking preſented itſelf to my view. For as the poor unhappy victims were ſurpriſed in the midſt of their ſleep, they had neither power nor time to make any reſiſtance, but men, women and children ran out of their tents quite naked. But alas, where could they fly for ſhelter! They every ſoul fell a ſacrifice to Indian barbarity, in all near thirty. The ſhrieks and groans of the poor expiring ſouls were truly horrible, and this was much increaſed by the ſight of one poor girl (about 18 years old) whom they killed ſo near to me, that when the firſt ſpear was ſtruck into her, ſhe fell down and twiſted about my feet and legs, and it was with much difficulty I diſengaged myſelf from her dying graſps. As the Indians purſued her, I ſolicited for her life, but ſo far was it from being granted, that I was not fully aſſured of my own being in entire ſafety for offering to ſpeak in her behalf. When I begged her life, the two fellows that followed her made no reply, till they had both their ſpears through her fixed into the ground: they then both looked me ſternly in the face, and began to upbraid me, by aſking if I wanted an Eſquimaux wife; at the ſame time paying no regard to the loud ſhrieks of the poor girl, who was twining round the ſpears like an eel. Indeed I was obliged at laſt to deſire that they would be more expeditious in diſpatching her out of her miſery, leſt otherwiſe I ſhould be obliged out of pity, to aſſiſt in performing that friendly office. The brutiſh manner in which they uſed the bodies, which they had deprived of life, is too ſhocking, and would be too indecent to deſcribe, and the terror of mind I was in from ſuch a ſituation is ſo much eaſier to be conceived than deſcribed, that I ſhall not attempt it. When they had completed this moſt inhuman murder, we obſerved ſeven more tents on the oppoſite ſide of the river. The Indians of theſe tents were ſoon in great confuſion, but did not offer to make their eſcape. The Indians fired many ſhot at them acroſs the river, but the poor Eſquimaux were ſo unacquainted with the nature of guns, that when the bullets ſtruck the rocks they ran in great bodies to ſee what was ſent them, and ſeemed curious in examining the pieces of lead which they found flatted on the rocks, till at laſt one man was ſhot through the leg, after which they embarked in their canoes, with their wives and children, and paddled to a

ſhoal in the river. When my Indians had made all their obſervations on the bodies, as above mentioned, and had plundered their tents of all their copper-work (which they and the Copper Indians uſed inſtead of iron) they aſſembled at the top of an high hill, ſtanding in a circle with their ſpears erect in the air, and gave ſhouts of victory, calling *Tima! Tima!* by way of deriſion to the ſurviving Eſquimaux who were ſtanding on the ſhoal. We then went up the river about half a mile, to the place where our canoes and baggage were, with an intent to croſs over and plunder the other ſeven tents. It taking up a conſiderable time to get all acroſs the river, as we had only three canoes, and being entirely under cover of the rocks, the poor Eſquimaux whom we left on the ſhoal, thought we were gone about our own buſineſs, and had returned to their own tents again. And the land was ſo ſituated on the eaſt ſide that the Indians went under cover of the hills, until they were within a hundred yards of their tents, where they ſaw the Eſquimaux buſy in tying up their bundles. They ran on them again with great fury, but having their canoes ready, they all embarked, and reached the ſhoals before-mentioned, except one poor old man, who being too attentive in tying up his things, had not time to reach his canoe, and ſo fell a ſacrifice to Indian fury. After the Indians had plundered theſe tents of what they thought worth their notice, they threw their tent poles into the river, broke their ſtone kettles, and did all they could to diſtreſs the poor ſurvivors. We found an aged woman at a ſmall diſtance up the river, ſnaring of ſalmon, whom they butchered in the ſame manner, every man having a thruſt at her with his ſpear."

The other extract is as follows:

" This day, January the 11th, 1772, as the Indians were hunting, ſome of them ſaw a ſtrange ſnow-ſhoe track, which they followed, and at a conſiderable diſtance came to a little hut, where they found a young woman ſitting alone. They brought her to the tents, and on examining her found that ſhe was one of the weſtern dog-ribbed Indians, and had been taken priſoner by the Arathapeſcow Indians, in the ſummer of 1770, and when the Indians, who took her priſoner, were near this place in 1771, ſhe eloped from them, with an intent to return to her own country. But it being ſo far off, and when ſhe was taken priſoner having come all the way in canoes, with the winding of rivers and lakes, ſhe had forgot the way, and had been in this little hut ever ſince the beginning of fall. By her account of the moons paſt ſince her elopement, it appears to have been the middle of laſt July when ſhe left the Arapatheſcow Indians, and ſhe had not ſeen a human face ſince. She had ſupported herſelf by ſnaring rabbits, partridges and ſquirrels, and was now in good health, and I think, as fine a woman of a real Indian, as I have ſeen in any part of North America. She had nothing to make ſnares of but the ſinews of rabbits legs and feet, which ſhe twiſted together for that purpoſe, and of the rabbits ſkins had made a neat and warm winter's clothing. The ſtock of materials ſhe took with her when ſhe eloped, conſiſted of about five inches of an iron hoop for a knife, a ſtone ſteel, and other hard ſtones for flints, together with other fire tackle, as tinder, &c. about an inch and an half of the ſhank of the ſhoeing of an arrow, of iron, of which ſhe made an awl. She had not been long at the tents, before half a ſcore of men wreſtled to ſee who ſhould have her for a wife. She ſays, that when the Arathapeſcow Indians took her priſoner they ſtole upon the tents in the night, when all the inhabitants were aſleep, and murdered every ſoul except herſelf and three other young wōmen. Her father, mother, and huſband, were in the ſame tent with her, and they were all killed. Her child, of about five months old, ſhe took with her, wrapt in a bundle of her own clothing, undiſcovered, in the night. But when ſhe arrived at the place where the Arathapeſcows had left their

wives, which was not far off, it being then day-break, theſe Indian women immediately began to examine her bundle, and having there found the child, took it from her and killed it immediately. The relation of this ſhocking ſcene only ſerved the ſavages of my gang for laughter. Her country is ſo far to the weſtward, that ſhe ſays ſhe never ſaw any iron or other metal till ſhe was taken priſoner; thoſe of her tribe making their hatchets and chiſſels of deer's horns, and knives of ſtone and bone; their arrows are ſhod with a kind of ſlate, bone, and deer's horns, and their inſtruments to make their wood work are nothing but beaver's teeth. They have frequently heard of the uſeful materials that the nations to the eaſt of them are ſupplied with from the Engliſh, but inſtead of drawing nearer to be in the way of trading for iron work, &c. are obliged to remove farther back to avoid the Arathapeſcow Indians, as they make ſurpriſing ſlaughter among them every year, both winter and ſummer."

The Eſquimaux, according to Mr. Pennant, are diſtinguiſhed from the tribes ſouth of them, chiefly by their dreſs, their canoes, and their inſtruments of chace. He divides them into two varieties. About Prince William's Sound they are of the largeſt ſize. As you advance northward they decreaſe in height, till they dwindle into the dwarfiſh tribes, which occupy ſome of the coaſts of the Icy ſea, and the maritime parts of Hudſon's Bay, of Greenland and Labrador. Their dwarfiſhneſs is doubtleſs occaſioned by the ſcantineſs of their proviſions, and the ſeverity of their climate. Beyond the 67th deg. N. Lat. according to Capt. Ellis's account, there are no inhabitants. The Arctic countries in America, Aſia, and Greenland, if inhabited at all, have very few inhabitants; and thoſe are of the dwarfiſh kind, ſcattered on the banks of rivers, lakes, and ſeas, and ſubſiſt miſerably upon fiſh, and the fleſh of thoſe animals which inhabit thoſe frozen regions, with the ſkins of which they clothe themſelves.

Mr. Crantz gives it as his opinion, that the Eſquimaux came originally from the north-eaſt regions of Great Tartary, between the Icy ſea and Mungalia; becauſe he obſerves a greater affinity between them and the Kalmucks, Tunguſes and Kamſkadales, who inhabit thoſe regions, than between them and the Laplanders, Samoieds and Oſtiaks, who inhabit the north-weſt parts of Europe, whence, it has generally been conjectured, the Eſquimaux migrated. It is his opinion alſo, that Greenland was ſettled in the 14th century, from the north-eaſtern parts of America; for till that period, Greenland appears not to have had any inhabitants. The rout which the firſt migrants took, he ſuppoſes was, firſt into Tartary, after the diſperſion of the nations, thence into Kamtſkatka, thence acroſs the ſtrait which ſeparates the two continents; whence they ſpread themſelves unmoleſted, into the then uninhabited countries round Hudſon's Bay, and down as far ſouth as Canada. And here they were found in the 11th century, by the Norwegians, in their Wineland. Afterwards theſe more ſoutherly regions were conquered by the more numerous and powerful tribes ſouth of the lakes, and the Eſquimaux were forced to retire as far north as the 60th deg. N. lat. Here Capt Ellis found the Eſquimaux, in his voyage to Hudſon's Bay, and diſcovered that they had the ſame aſpect, dreſs, boats, hunting and fiſhing implements, habitations, manners and uſages as the Greenlanders.* They are often purſued and hunted by the other Indians, who live about the ſouth and weſt ſhores of Hudſon's Bay, and who appear to be quite a different people.

The

* One of the Moravian brethren, who underſtood the Greenland language, made a voyage to Labrador in 1764. On the fourth of September he met about 200 Indians. The firſt that he ſpoke to behaved very wild and ſhy; but when the Indian ſaw him clad in his own dreſs, and heard him ſpeak in his own language, he called out to the others with ſhouts of joy, "Our friend is come." They conducted him further up, to their families,

The newly-diſcovered American Indians about Nootka Sound diſguiſe themſelves after the manner of the ancient Scythians, in dreſſes made of the ſkins of wolves and other wild beaſts, and wear even the heads fitted to their own. Theſe habits they uſe in the chaſe to circumvent the animals of the field.

Concerning the religion of the Indians much has been ſaid, and much that has no foundation. In general it may be ſaid, that they all have an idea of a Supreme Being, whom they worſhip under different names, and with a great variety of ſuperſtitious rites and ceremonies. Some, particularly the nations of the Algonquin language, call their Supreme God, the *Great Hare*; ſome *Michabou*, and others *Atahocan*. The Being oppoſed to this *Firſt Spirit*, whom they conſidered as the Creator and Governor of the world, they ſtyle the *Great Tyger*.

The name of the Hurons' Supreme God, or more properly their God of War, is *Areſkoui*; of the Iroquois, *Agreſkouſe*; but moſt of the nations ſouth of the Lakes, as far as Louiſiana, denominate their Supreme God, the *Great*, the *Good*, or the *Grand Spirit*, to whom they aſcribe a kind of omnipreſence, and whom they invoke as their guardian. To their evil genii they never addreſs themſelves, except to entreat them not to do them any injury; and to appeaſe their wrath they often ſacrifice to them. Mr. Kirkland mentions a ſmall lake, which he viſited, ſituated at the foot of a precipice, nearly 50 feet perpendicular height, in the territory of the Six Nations, in which, the old Indians affirm, reſided formerly a demon in the ſhape of a dragon, and that he had been ſeen frequently to diſgorge balls of liquid fire. To appeaſe his wrath, they ſaid, many a ſacrifice of tobacco had been made at the lake by the fathers.

New Diſcoveries on the North-weſt Coaſt of America.] The country on the North Weſtern part of the Continent of America, bounded by the Pacific ocean, is yet unexplored. We however have ſeveral charts of the coaſt: the lateſt publiſhed, is that, taken by Captains Portlock and Dixon, in a voyage performed in the years 1785, 86, 87, and 88; and from the enterprizing genius and repeated voyages of our own countrymen, we expect to be furniſhed with others much improved. "This vaſt country, with very little deviation, has the appearance of one continued foreſt, being covered with pines of a different ſpecies, and theſe intermixed with alder, birch, witch-hazle, &c. beſides various kinds of bruſh-wood: and the valleys and low grounds afford wild currants, gooſeberries, raſpberries, and various flowering ſhrubs. On the coaſt are many iſlands, ſpacious bays, commodious harbours and mouths of navigable rivers: among which are, Queen Charlotte's iſlands,* extending from N. lat. 51° 42′ to 54° 18′—W. long. 129° 54′ to 133° 18′ from Greenwich. Nootka Sound, ſituated in N. lat. 40° 30′. W. long. 126° 42′. Admiralty bay and port Mulgrave, N. lat. 59° 31′—W. long. 140° 18′. Prince William's Sound, N. lat. 60° 30′—W. long. 147° 30′. Cook's river, N. lat. 59° 30′—W. long. 153° 12′.

This coaſt is inhabited by numerous but ſmall tribes of Indians; each tribe appears to be independent and governed by its own chief. They differ from each other in their language and cuſtoms. The neighbouring tribes are frequently involved in wars with each other. It is impoſſible to aſcertain with any degree of certainty the number of inhabitants; but they have been computed at ten thouſand, from Cook's river to

families, and though other Europeans think they riſk their lives in being alone with them, they ſhewed him all imaginable friendſhip, and rejoiced when he gave them hopes of viſiting them the next year; which he did, in company with the Rev. Mr. Drachart, a gentleman well ſkilled in the Greenland language. He found that the two languages did not differ ſo much as the high and low Dutch—that their ſtature, way of living, dreſs, tents, darts and boats were the ſame as the Greenlanders.

* Since called Waſhington Iſland.

Nootka Sound, an extent of about 1000 miles. Capt. Portlock ſaw at Cape Edgecomb, ſeveral men much marked with the ſmall pox; and was informed that the diſtemper carried off great numbers of the inhabitants. From what circumſtances he could collect, he conjectured it was brought by the Spaniards, who were there in 1775. The natives are for the moſt part ſhort in ſtature: their faces, men and women, are in general flat and round, with high cheek bones and flat noſes; and their teeth white and regular. Their complections are lighter than the Southern Indians, and ſome of their women have roſy cheeks. Both ſexes are fond of ornamenting themſelves with beads and trinkets, and they generally paint their hands and faces. They have a cuſtom of making a longitudinal ſlit in the under lip, between the mouth and chin, ſome of them as large as the mouth, in which they wear a piece of bone, wood, or ivory, fitted with holes in it, from which they ſuſpend beads as low as the chin. They are very fond of maſks or viſors, and various kinds of caps painted with different devices, ſuch as birds, beaſts, fiſhes, and ſometimes repreſentations of the human face. They have likewiſe many devices carved in wood, which are greatly valued by them. There appears to be a greater uniformity in the dreſs of the different tribes than in their ornaments. The aperture, or ſecond mouth, above the chin, ſeems confined to the *men* of Cook's river and Prince William's Sound; whilſt the wooden ornament in the under lip is worn by the *women* only, in that part of the coaſt from port Mulgrave to Queen Charlotte's Iſlands.—Thieving is a very prevalent inclination among them, which is practiſed, not only upon ſtrangers, but among themſelves. In the courſe of their trading, they are frequently ſeen to ſteal from each other, and on being detected they will give up the articles ſtolen with a laugh, and immediately appear as unconcerned as if nothing had happened. Their habitations are generally the moſt wretched that can be conceived; a few poles ſtuck in the ground, without regularity, looſely covered with bark, conſtitute their huts, which are quite inſufficient to ſhelter them from the ſnow and rain, and the inſides of their dwellings exhibit a complete picture of filth and indolence. In one corner are thrown the bones and remaining fragments of victuals left at their meals; in another, heaps of fiſh and putrefied fleſh, greaſe, oil, &c. In ſhort, the whole ſerves to ſhew in how wretched a ſtate it is poſſible for human beings to exiſt.

They ſubſiſt wholly by fiſhing and hunting. Their clothing is made of the ſkins of animals and birds; and the probable reaſon why the Indians take no greater pains in the conſtruction of their habitations, is, that their ſituation is merely temporary; for no ſooner does the maſter of a tribe find game begin to grow ſcarce, or fiſh not ſo plenty as he expected, than he takes down his hut, puts the boards or barks into his canoe, and paddles away to ſeek a ſpot better adapted to his purpoſes; which having found, he erects his dwelling in the ſame careleſs manner as before.

Few or no remarks concerning their religious ceremonies have yet been handed to us; but from the traits already diſcerned, theſe cannot be leſs rude than their other cuſtoms.

The chief object of civilized nations in navigating this coaſt hitherto has been to traffic with the natives for furs; which they give in exchange for pieces of iron, nails, beads, penknives and other trifling trinkets. Theſe furs are carried to China and diſpoſed of to a great profit. The ſkins obtained are thoſe of the ſea otter, racoon, pine-martin, land beaver, earleſs mammot, &c.

A traffick which in proſpect affords ſuch uncommon profit, has induced many citizens of the United States to engage in it; but whether the number of veſſels fitted out

out by other nations has not made a ſcarcity of furs, and taught the natives to ſet a higher value on them, experience will determine.

The following ſtatement ſhews the number of veſſels that had arrived at China, from the N. W. coaſt, to February, 1788, with the number of furs, and their value, viz.

Veſſels.	*Names.*	*Capts.*	*Tons Burden.*	*Years.*	*From whence ſent.*	*No. of Furs obtained.*	*Sold for Doll.*
Brig	- -	Hanna,	60	1785	- -	560 S. Otter	20,600
Ditto	- -	ibid.	—	ibid.	- -	400 - -	8,000
Snow,	Capt. Cook,	Lovie,	300	1786	Bombay,	600 - -	24,000
Snow,	Experiment,	Guiſe,	100				
——	Nootka, -	Mears,	- -	1786	Bengal, -	357 - -	14,242
——	Imperial Eagle,	Berkley,	- -	——	—— -	800 - -	30,000
—	— — — — — — —		1700	Skins imported by the Spaniards, unſold, valued			——
Ship	- -	Peyrouſe,		—	—	—	— 54,837
Ship	- -	De Langle,					

What furs the Ruſſians procure is not known, as they never carry them to Canton. From the above ſketch it appears that the fur trade has been very lucrative. There are alſo other articles which might perhaps be procured to advantage, ſuch as ginſeng, copper, oil, ſpars, &c. with great quantities of ſalmon.

The following extracts from the account of Capt. Cook's diſcoveries contain much valuable information reſpecting the N. W. coaſt of America, and its neighbouring iſlands.

Having left the Society Iſlands, Captain Cook proceeded to the northward, croſſing the equator on the 22d and 23d of December, 1777; and on the 24th diſcovered a low uninhabited iſland about 15 or 20 leagues in circumference. Here the longitude and latitude were exactly determined, by means of an eclipſe of the ſun. The weſt ſide of it, where the eclipſe was obſerved, lies in N. Lat. 1° 59′ E. Lon. 202° 30′. From the time of its diſcovery it obtained the name of *Chriſtmas Iſland*. Plenty of turtle were found upon it, and the Captain cauſed the ſeeds of the cocoa-nut, yams, and melons, to be planted.

Proceeding ſtill to the northward, our navigator next fell in with five iſlands, to which he gave the general name of *Sandwich Iſles*, in honour of his patron. Their names in the language of the country are Woahoo, Atooi, Oneeheow, Oreehoua, and Tehoora. They are ſituated in the latitude of 21° 30′ and 22° 15′ North, and between 199° 20′ and 201° 30′ E. Long. The longitude was deduced from no fewer than 72 ſets of lunar obſervations. The largeſt of theſe iſlands is Atooi, and does not in the leaſt reſemble the iſlands of the South Sea formerly viſited by our navigators, excepting only that it has hills near the center, which ſlope gradually towards the ſea-ſide. The only domeſtic animals found upon it were hogs, dogs, and fowls. Captain Cook deſigned to have made the inhabitants of this iſland a preſent of ſome others; but being driven out of it by ſtreſs of weather, he was obliged to land them upon a ſmaller one, named *Oneeheeow*. He left a he-goat with two females, and a boar and ſow of the Engliſh breed, which is much ſuperior to that of the South Sea Iſlands. He left alſo the ſeeds of melons, pumpkins, and onions. The ſoil of this iſland ſeemed in general to be poor: it was obſerved that the ground was covered with ſhrubs and plants, ſome of which had a more delicious fragrancy than he had ever experienced before. The inhabitants of theſe iſlands are much commended, notwithſtanding their horrid cuſtom of

of eating human flesh. In every thing manufactured by them there is an ingenuity and neatneſs in an uncommon degree; and the elegant form and poliſh of ſome of their fiſhing-hooks could not be exceeded by an European artiſt, even aſſiſted by all his proper tools. From what was ſeen of their agriculture alſo, it appeared that they were by no means novices in that art, and that the quantity and goodneſs of their vegetable productions might with propriety be attributed as much to their ſkilful culture as to the fertility of the ſoil. The language of the Sandwich Iſles is almoſt identically the ſame with that of Otaheite.

Proceeding farther to the northward, our navigator diſcovered the coaſt of New Albion, on the 7th of March 1778. Its appearance was very different from that of the countries with which they had hitherto been converſant. The land was full of mountains, the tops of which were covered with ſnow; while the valleys between them, and the grounds on the ſea coaſt, high as well as low, were covered with trees, which formed a beautiful proſpect as of one vaſt foreſt. The place where they landed was ſituated in N. Lat. 74° 33′. E. Long. 235° 2c′. At firſt the natives ſeemed to prefer iron to every other article of commerce; but at laſt they ſhowed ſuch a predilection for braſs, that ſcarcely a bit of it was left in the ſhips, except what belonged to the neceſſary inſtruments. It was obſerved alſo, that theſe people were much more tenacious of their property than any of the ſavage nations that had hitherto been met with, inſomuch that they would part neither with wood, water, graſs, nor the moſt trifling article, without a compenſation, and were ſometimes very unreaſonable in their demands; with which, however, the captain always complied as far as was in his power.

The place where the Reſolution was now anchored, was by our navigator called *St. George's Sound*, but he afterwards underſtood that the natives gave it the name of *Nootka*. Its entrance is ſituated in the eaſt corner of Hope Bay; in N. Lat. 49°. 33′. E. Long. 233°. 12′. The climate, as far as they had an opportunity of obſerving it, was much milder than that on the eaſtern coaſt of the American continent in the ſame parallel of latitude: and it was remarkable that the thermometer, even in the night, never fell lower than 42°, while in the day time it frequently roſe to 60°. The trees met with here are chiefly the Canadian pine, white cypreſs, and ſome other kinds of pine. There ſeemed to be a ſcarcity of birds, which are much haraſſed by the natives, who ornament their clothes with the feathers, and uſe the fleſh for food. The people are no ſtrangers to the uſe of metals, having iron tools in general uſe among them; and Mr. Gore procured two ſilver ſpoons, of a conſtruction ſimilar to what may be obſerved in ſome Flemiſh pictures, from a native who wore them round his neck as an ornament. It is moſt probable that theſe metals have been conveyed to them by the way of Hudſon's Bay and Canada; nor is it improbable that ſome of them may have been introduced from the north weſtern parts of Mexico.

While Capt. Cooke ſailed along this coaſt, he kept always at a diſtance from land when the wind blew ſtrongly upon it; whence ſeveral large gaps were left unexplored, particularly between the latitudes of 50° and 55°. The exact ſituation of the ſuppoſed ſtraits of Anian was not aſcertained, though there is not the leaſt doubt, that if he had lived to return by the ſame way in 1779, he would have examined every part with his uſual accuracy. On departing from Nootka Sound, our navigator firſt fell in with an iſland in N. lat. 59° 49′ E. long. 216° 58′ to which he gave the name of *Kay's Iſland*. Several others were diſcovered in the neighbourhood; and the ſhip came to an anchor in an inlet named by the Captain *Prince William's Sound*. Here he had an opportunity of making ſeveral obſervations on the inhabitants, as well as on the nature

of

of the country. From every thing relative to the former, it was concluded, that the inhabitants were of the ſame race with the Eſquimaux or Greenlanders. The animals were much the ſame with thoſe met with at Nootka, and a beautiful ſkin of one animal, which ſeemed to be peculiar to the place, was offered for ſale. Mr. Anderſon was inclined to think that it was the ſame to which Mr. Pennant has given the name of the *caſan marmot*. The alcedo, or great king's fiſher, was found here, having very fine and bright colours. The humming bird alſo came frequently, and flew about the ſhip while at anchor; though it is ſcarce to be ſuppoſed that it can live throughout the winter, on account of the extreme cold. The water fowl were in conſiderable plenty; and there is a ſpecies of diver which ſeemed to be peculiar to the place. Almoſt the only kinds of fiſh met with in the place were torſk and halibut. The trees were chiefly the Canadian and ſpruce pines, ſome of which were of a conſiderable height and thickneſs. The Sound is judged by Captain Cook to occupy a degree and a half of latitude. and two of longitude, excluſively of its arms and branches, which were not explored. There was every reaſon to believe that the inhabitants had never been viſited by any European veſſel before; but our navigator found them in poſſeſſion not only of iron but of beads, which, it is probable, are conveyed to them acroſs the continent from Hudſon's Bay.

Soon after leaving Prince William's Sound, our navigator fell in with another inlet, which it was expected would lead either to the northern ſea or to Hudſon's or Baffin's bay; but upon examination it was found to end in a large river. This was traced for 210 miles from the mouth, as high as N. lat. 61° 30′, and promiſes to vie with the moſt conſiderable ones already known, as it lies open by means of its various branches to a very conſiderable inland communication. As no name was given by our commander to this river, it was ordered by Lord Sandwich to be named *Cook's River*. The inhabitants ſeemed to be of the ſame race with thoſe of Prince William's Sound; and like them had glaſs beads and knives; they were alſo cloathed in very fine furs; ſo that it ſeemed probable that a valuable fur trade might be carried on from that country. Several attempts have accordingly been made from the Britiſh ſettlements in the Eaſt Indies to eſtabliſh a traffic of that kind; but little benefit accrued from it, except to the proprietors of the firſt veſſel, her cargo having greatly lowered the price of that commodity in the Chineſe market. It muſt be obſerved, that on the weſtern ſide of the American continent, the only valuable ſkins met with are thoſe of the ſea otter; thoſe of the other animals, eſpecially foxes and martins, being of an inferior quality to ſuch as are met with in other parts.

Proceeding farther to the northward our navigator now fell in with a race of people who had evidently been viſited by the Ruſſians, and ſeemed to have adopted from them ſome improvements in dreſs, &c. In the proſecution of this part of their voyage, it appeared that they had been providentially conveyed in the dark through a paſſage ſo dangerous, that our commander would not have ventured upon it in the day time. They were now got in among thoſe iſlands which had lately been diſcovered by Capt. Beering and other Ruſſian navigators, and came to an anchor in a harbour of Oonalaſhka, ſituated in N. lat. 53° 55′ E. long. 193° 30′. Here it was remarked, that the inhabitants had as yet profited very little by their intercourſe with the Ruſſians; ſo that they did not even dreſs the fiſh they uſed for their food, but devoured them quite raw.

From Oonalaſhka our navigator proceeded again towards the continent, which he continued to trace as far as poſſible to the northward. In the latitude of 54° 48′ E. long. 195° 45′ N. lat. is a volcano of the ſhape of a perfect cone, having the crater at the

very ſummit. On the coaſt farther to the north the ſoil appears very barren, producing neither tree nor ſhrub, though the lower grounds are not deſtitute of graſs and ſome other plants. To a rocky point of conſiderable height ſituated in N. lat. 58° 42′. E. long 197° 36′. our commander gave the name of *Cape Newnham.*

Here Mr. Anderſon, the ſurgeon of the Reſolution, died of a conſumption, under which he had laboured for more than twelve months. Soon after he had breathed his laſt, land being ſeen at a diſtance, it was named *Anderſon's Iſland*; and on the 9th of Auguſt the ſhip anchored under a point of the continent which he named *Cape Prince of Wales.* This is remarkable for being the moſt weſterly point of the American continent hitherto known. It is ſituated in N. lat. 65° 46′. E. long. 191° 45′. It is only 39 miles diſtant from the eaſtern coaſt of Siberia; ſo that our commander had the pleaſure of aſcertaining the vicinity of the two continents to each other, which had only been imperfectly done by the Ruſſian navigators. Setting ſail from this point next day, he ſteered to the weſt and north, when he ſoon fell in with the country of the Tſchutſki, which had been explored by Beering in 1728. Here he had an opportunity of correcting M. Stæhlin's map, who had placed in theſe ſeas an imaginary iſland, on which he beſtowed the name of *Alaſchka.* Being convinced that the land he had now reached was part of the Aſiatic continent, our commander directed his courſe eaſtward, in order to fall in with that of America; and on the 17th reached the latitude of 70° 33′. and E. long. 179° 41′. Here they began to perceive that brightneſs in the horizon called by the mariners the *blink of the ice*; and in 70° 41′ they had got quite up to it, ſo that no farther progreſs could be made. Next day they made a ſhift to get as far as 70° 44′, but the ice was now as compact as a wall, and about ten or twelve feet in height. Its ſurface was extremely rugged, and farther to the northward appeared much higher. Its ſurface was covered with pools of water, and great numbers of ſea-lions lay upon it, whoſe fleſh they were now glad to uſe as food. Our commander continued to traverſe the Icy Sea till the 29th, but the obſtructions becoming every day greater and greater, it was thought proper to give over all further attempts of finding a paſſage to Europe for that year. He did not, however, omit the inveſtigation of the Aſiatic and American coaſts, until he had fully aſcertained the accuracy of Captain Beering's accounts as far as he went, and corrected the errors of M. Stæhlin. Great additions were thus made to the geographical knowledge of this part of the globe. From Beering's ſtraits he ſailed for Oonalaſhka, where he arrived on the 2d of October, and ſtaid for ſome time in order to repair his ſhips. While the carpenters were employed in this work, one third of the people had permiſſion to go on ſhore by turns, in order to gather berries, with which the iſland abounds, and which, though now beginning to decay, were of great ſervice, in conjunction with the ſpruce beer, to preſerve the people from the ſcurvy. With regard to the natives of Oonalaſhka, they are to appearance the moſt inoffenſive and peaceable people in the world, not to be in a ſtate of civilization; though perhaps this may be owing in ſome meaſure to the connection they have long had with the Ruſſians. From the affinity obſerved between the language of the Eſquimaux, Greenlanders, and thoſe of Norton's Sound, in N. lat. 64° 55′, there is great reaſon to believe, that all thoſe nations are of the ſame extraction; and if that be the caſe, there is little reaſon to doubt, that a communication, by ſea, exiſts between the eaſtern and weſtern ſides of the American continent; which, however, may probably be ſhut up by ice in the winter time, or even for the moſt part throughout the year.

The following information reſpecting the N. Weſt coaſt of America is extracted from the journal of Mr. John Cordis of Charleſtown, Maſſachuſetts, ſecond officer of the ſnow Eleanora, from Boſton.

On the 30th of Auguſt, 1789, Mr. Cordis, at *Waſhington Iſland*, left the ſloop Waſhington, which was commanded by Captain Kendric, and went on board the ſnow Eleanora, commanded by Captain Simeon Metcalf.

Captain Cook, when he paſſed this iſland, ſuppoſed it to be a part of the continent, as the weather at the time was thick, and the wind boiſterous, which obliged him to keep at ſea, till he made the weſtern cape of the continent in about lat. 55°. Captain Gray, in the ſloop Waſhington, firſt diſcovered it to be an iſland, and gave it the name of WASHINGTON. To a harbour, about the middle of the iſland, he gave the name of *Barrel's Inlet*, in honour of Joſeph Barrel, Eſq. of Boſton. Another harbour, whoſe entrance is in lat. 52° 12′ N. lon. 136° W. they called *Clinton's Harbour*, in honor of Govenor Clinton of New York.

On the continent oppoſite the iſland is a convenient harbour, with a muddy bottom, which they called *Cordis's Cove*. The iſland has many excellent harbours.

This iſland is about 100 miles in length, from S. E. to N. W. and about 30 in breadth. The ſouthernmoſt point is in about lat. 51° 50′ N. lon. 135° W.

It is compoſed principally of irregular mountains, the tops of which, even in ſummer, are covered with ſnow. It abounds with ſpruce, pine, and cedar trees. Among other animals on this iſland, are the bear, deer, dog, ſeal, and ſea otter; of the latter are great numbers, whoſe ſkins are of a moſt beautiful black, intermixed with white hair, and their fur is extremely fine and delicate.

The number of inhabitants on this iſland, Mr. Cordis conjectures, is between ten and eleven thouſand. He calculates thus—One of the chiefs informed him that he poſſeſſed ſix large canoes, or as they call them, *Lux Chepotts*, which would carry upwards of 50 men each; and his tribe was large enough to man them all. There were ſeventeen other chiefs, he ſaid, beſide himſelf, on the iſland; each of whom had nearly the ſame number of men; hence he concludes, that upon a moderate calculation each tribe contains 600 ſouls; and the whole iſland about ten thouſand eight hundred.

The natives of this iſland are in general well made, robuſt, active, and athletic; and of a larger ſize than thoſe on the oppoſite continent, and of a lighter complection. Their hair is very harſh and long, and tied back with a piece of red cedar bark. The women have a very ſingular mode of ornamenting, or rather of diſfiguring themſelves, by making, when very young, a ſmall hole in the under lip, and putting in a ſmall piece, or plug of wood, for the purpoſe of keeping it diſtended. By frequently increaſing the ſize of this plug, as they advance in age, by the time they are five and twenty, the hole becomes large enough to contain a piece of wood two inches long, and about an inch wide, the upper part of which is dug out in the form of a ſpoon, which ſerves both for ornament and uſe, as it is uſed at their meals ro contain the oil for their fiſh. This cuſtom, however, is not general throughout the iſland. Their war implements, which they have frequent occaſion to uſe, ſome or other of the tribes being almoſt perpetually at war, are ſpears about 15 feet long, with the ends pointed with ſhells or ſtone, and bows and arrows. The iron which they obtain in traffic is immediately converted into ornaments for the neck, and into knives. Their mode of working it could not be diſcovered. It is a cuſtom in ſome of the tribes, when a priſoner offends them, for the chiefs to kill and eat him. Mr. Cordis was an eye-witneſs to one inſtance of this kind, as he found a piece of human fleſh, with an Indian woman, the wife of a chief, of which ſhe ate, and appeared to be fond. Their common diet is dried fiſh and their ſpawns, mixed with a large quantity of fiſh oil. They ſometimes, when they have no fire near, eat ſmall fiſh raw, juſt as they are taken from the water.

Their habitations are ſmall huts of a triangular form, conſtructed of poles, and the bark of cedar trees, with a ſmall hole for a door. They frequently remove from place to place as the fiſh go up or down the river. The men are extremely jealous of their wives, but chaſtity is not among the virtues of the young unmarried women. Both men and women generally paint themſelves red or black, every morning. Their dreſs conſiſts of ſkins thrown over their ſhoulders, and tied round their necks with a leathern thong; the reſt part of their bodies is entirely naked, except the women, who ſometimes, but not always, have a ſkin faſtened round their waiſt.

Their method of diſpoſing of their dead is very ſingular. They put the corpſe into a ſquare box; if the box happens to be too ſmall for the body, they cut off the head, or other parts of it, which they put into the vacant places. This being done, the box is ſecured by having ſeveral mats wound round it, and then is hoiſted into the top of the higheſt tree in the neighbourhood, where it is faſtened and left till the box decays and drops in pieces. Though frequently aſked, they would not tell their reaſons for this cuſtom.

The manner of treating the dead, on the continent oppoſite the iſland, is ſomewhat different. They put the dead body into a ſquare box, when it has become a little putrefied, and ſecure it well with cords. After this the relations of the deceaſed ſeat themſelves on the box, and with an inſtrument made of a ſhell, cut their faces till they are covered with blood, ſpeaking all the while in a loud and melancholy tone. This ceremony being over, they waſh themſelves, and return to the company with great gaiety. The corpſe is then put under a great tree, and covered with mats and earth, and left to be devoured by wild beaſts.

It has been conjectured by navigators upon this coaſt, that there is, ſome where between the latitudes of 50 and 60 degrees, a paſſage through the continent, from the Pacific ocean, into Hudſon's Bay. Mr. Cordis, by order of Capt. Metcalf, explored a large ſtrait, to the eaſtward of Waſhington Iſland, running up N. E. into the country. On the 24th of September 1789, he left the ſhip, and in the yawl, with ſix men, proceeded N. N. E. about 25 miles up the ſtrait, where he found it about 3 miles wide. The land on each ſide was mountainous and woody, and bears and wolves were heard during the night. Continuing his courſe next day, N. N. E. till ten o'clock A. M. he found the ſtrait to lead north, and to be much narrower. He kept on the eaſtern ſhore, till 2 o'clock P. M. when the ſtrait opened wider to the N. E. The next day he proceeded upwards of 40 miles, N. E. and N. N. E. where he found the ſtrait much wider than any part he had paſſed, except the entrance. The time to which he was limited being now expired, and his proviſions ſhort, he returned on board, ſtrongly impreſſed, however, with the opinion that this ſtrait communicated with Hudſon's Bay, or with ſome of the waters of the Atlantic Ocean.

In January, 1790, Capt. Metcalf viſited the Sandwich Iſlands. The principal of theſe Iſlands, *O why hee*, according to Mr. Cordis's reckoning, lies in 19° 50′ N. lat. and 154° 50′ W. or in 205° 20′ E. long. from Greenwich. The natives of theſe iſlands are, generally ſpeaking, ſtout, vigorous, and active, and by being almoſt conſtantly in the water, ſeem to be nearly amphibious. They are of a light copper colour, with black hair. The women have a cuſtom of anointing themſelves with an ointment which gives them a yelloviſh appearance.

They have two kinds of canoes, the ſingle and the double. The former are about 30 feet long and two and a half broad; and to prevent their overturning, have an out-rigger which projects 5 feet from the canoe. The latter, are two canoes, connected by arched timbers, paſſing from the gunwale of one to the gunwale of the other, and

and are about three feet apart; ſome of theſe double canoes are above 80 feet in length, and will contain as many men. The paddles of theſe canoes are about 5 feet long, and the part which goes into the water 15 inches broad; with theſe they will paddle at the rate of 6 miles an hour.

Theſe iſlands produce ſugar canes, potatoes, cocoa nuts, bread fruit, plantains, water melons, yams, and a root they call *tea*, which is of a ſweetiſh taſte, not diſagreeable. It is about the bigneſs of a man's arm and nearly as long. They have alſo a root which they call *ava*. With its juice they often get intoxicated, or rather ſtupefied. Thoſe who make a free uſe of it, when they become old, have a ſcaly appearance not unlike the leproſy. Theſe iſlands abound with hogs, which are large and good. Dogs are conſidered by the chiefs as a delicate diſh, and are fed with great care for their uſe. A few dunghill fowls were alſo found on theſe iſlands, which, probably, were left here by ſome ſhip, not many years ſince.

The only valuable wood on theſe iſlands, is what is called *ſandle* wood, which is of a yelloviſh colour, and has a moſt agreeable ſmell. It is much eſteemed by the Chineſe, who burn it in their churches. They have another ſpecies of wood, not unlike the *lignum vitæ*, with which they make their ſpears, which are from ten to twelve feet in length. Theſe ſpears, with the knife, which is made of a ſmall piece of wood, and on both ſides ſtuck full of ſharks' teeth, appear to be their only inſtruments of war.

The ſland of O-why-hee is nearly twenty leagues in circumference, and contains upwards of 30,000 inhabitants, under the arbitrary government of one chief.

A SUMMARY ACCOUNT *of the firſt* DISCOVERY *and* SETTLEMENT *of* NORTH AMERICA, *arranged in chronological order.*

NORTH AMERICA was diſcovered in the reign of Henry VII. a period when the arts and ſciences had made very conſiderable progreſs in Europe. Many of the firſt adventurers were men of genius and learning, and were careful to preſerve authentic records of ſuch of their proceedings as would be intereſting to poſterity. Theſe records afford ample documents for American hiſtorians. Perhaps no people on the globe can trace the hiſtory of their origin and progreſs with ſo much preciſion, as the inhabitants of North America; particularly that part of them who inhabit the territory of the United States.

The fame which Columbus had acquired by his firſt diſcoveries on this weſtern continent, ſpread through Europe, and inſpired many with the ſpirit of enterprize.

1495.] As early as 1495, four years only after the firſt diſcovery of America, John Cabot, a Venetian, obtained a grant or commiſſion from Henry VII. to diſcover unknown lands and annex them to the crown.*

In the ſpring of 1496 he ſailed from England with two ſhips, carrying with him his three ſons. In this voyage, which was intended for China, he fell in with the north ſide of Terra Labrador, and coaſted northerly as far as the 67th degree of latitude.

1497.] The next year he made a ſecond voyage to America with his ſon Sebaſtian, who afterwards proceeded in the diſcoveries which his father had begun. On the 24th

* See Hazard's "Hiſtorical Collections," page 9. Vol. I. where this grant is recited at large. It is dated A. D. 1495.

of

of June he diſcovered Bonaviſta, on the north-eaſt ſide of Newfoundland. Before his return he traverſed the coaſt from Davis's ſtraits to Cape Florida.

1502.] Sebaſtian Cabot was this year at Newfoundland; and on his return, carried three of the natives of that iſland to King Henry VII.

1513.] In the ſpring of 1513, John Ponce ſailed from Porto Rico northerly, and diſcovered the continent in 30° 8′ north latitude. He landed in April, a ſeaſon when the country around was covered with verdure, and in full bloom. This circumſtance induced him to call the country FLORIDA, which, for many years, was the common name for North and South America.

1516.] In 1516, Sir Sebaſtian Cabot and Sir Thomas Pert, explored the coaſt as far as Brazil in South America.

This vaſt extent of country, the coaſt of which was thus explored, remained unclaimed and unſettled by any European power, (except by the Spaniards in South America) for almoſt a century from the time of its diſcovery.

1524.] It was not till the year 1524 that France attempted diſcoveries on the American coaſt. Stimulated by his enterpriſing neighbours, Francis I. who poſſeſſed a great and active mind, ſent John Verazano, a Florentine, to America, for the purpoſe of making diſcoveries. He traverſed the coaſt from latitude 28° to 50° north. In a ſecond voyage, ſome time after, he was loſt.

1525.] The next year Stephen Gomez, the firſt Spaniard who came upon the American coaſt for diſcovery, ſailed from Groyn in Spain, to Cuba and Florida, thence northward to Cape Razo, in latitude 46° north, in ſearch of a northern paſſage to the Eaſt Indies.

1534.] In the ſpring of 1534, by the direction of Francis I. a fleet was fitted out at St. Malo's in France, with deſign to make diſcoveries in America. The command of this fleet was given to James Cartier.* He arrived at Newfoundland in May of this year; thence he ſailed northerly; and on the day of the feſtival of St. Lawrence, he found himſelf in about latitude 48° 30′ north, in the midſt of a broad gulf, which he named St. Lawrence. He gave the ſame name to the river which empties into it. In this voyage, he ſailed as far north as latitude 51°, expecting in vain to find a paſſage to China.

1535.] The next year he ſailed up the river St. Lawrence 300 leagues, to the great and ſwift *Fall*. He called the country New France; built a fort, in which he ſpent the winter, and returned in the following ſpring to France.

1539.] On the 12th of May, 1539, Ferdinand de Soto, with 900 men, beſides ſeamen, ſailed from Cuba, having for his object the conqueſt of Florida. On the 30th of May he arrived at Spirito Santo, from whence he travelled northward to the Chickaſaw country, in about latitude 35° or 36°. He died and was buried on the bank of Miſſiſſippi River, May, 1542, aged 42 years. Alverdo ſucceeded him.

1542.] In 1542, Francis la Roche, Lord Robewell, was ſent to Canada, by the French king, with three ſhips and 200 men, women, and children. They wintered here in a fort which they had built, and returned in the ſpring. About the year 1550, a large number of adventurers ſailed for Canada, but were never after heard of. In 1598, the king of France commiſſioned the Marquis de la Roche to conquer Canada, and other countries not poſſeſſed by any Chriſtian prince. We do not learn, however,

* In Hazard's Hiſtorical Collections, Vol. I. page 19, is a commiſſion from Francis I. to James Cartier or Quartier, for making an eſtabliſhment in Canada, dated Oct. 17, 1540. Probably this commiſſion was given him in conſequence of his former diſcoveries.

that

that la Roche ever attempted to execute his commiſſion, or that any further attempts were made to ſettle Canada during this century.

January 6, 1548-49.] This year king Henry VII. granted a penſion for life to Sebaſtian Cabot, in conſideration of the important ſervices he had rendered to the kingdom by his diſcoveries in America.* Very reſpectable deſcendants of the Cabot family now live in the commonwealth of Maſſachuſetts.

1562.] The admiral of France, Chatillon, early in this year, ſent out a fleet under the command of John Ribalt. He arrived at Cape Francis on the coaſt of Florida, near which, on the firſt of May, he diſcovered and entered a river, which he called May river. It is more than probable that this river is the ſame which we now call St. Mary's, which forms a part of the ſouthern boundary of the United States. As he coaſted northward he diſcovered eight other rivers, one of which he called Port Royal, and ſailed up it ſeveral leagues. On one of the rivers he built a fort and called it *Charles*, in which he left a colony under the direction of Captain Albert. The ſeverity of Albert's meaſures excited a mutiny, in which, to the ruin of the colony, he
1564.] was ſlain. Two years after, Chatillon ſent Rene Laudonier with three ſhips to Florida. In June he arrived at the river *May*, on which he built a fort, and, in honour to his king, Charles IX. he called it CAROLINA.

In Auguſt, this year, Capt. Ribalt arrived at Florida the ſecond time, with a fleet of ſeven veſſels, to recruit the colony, which, two years before, he had left under the direction of the unfortunate Capt. Albert.

The September following, Pedro Melandes, with ſix Spaniſh ſhips, purſued Ribalt up the river on which he had ſettled, and overpowered him in numbers, cruelly maſſacred him and his whole company. Melandes, having in this way taken poſſeſſion of the country, built three forts, and left them garriſoned with 1200 ſoldiers. Laudonier and his colony on May River, receiving information of the fate of Ribalt, took the alarm and eſcaped to France.

1567.] A fleet of three ſhips was this year ſent from France to Florida, under the command of Dominique de Gourges. The object of this expedition was to diſpoſſeſs the Spaniards of that part of Florida which they had cruelly and unjuſtifiably
1568.] ſeized three years before. He arrived on the coaſt of Florida, April 1568, and ſoon after made a ſucceſsful attack upon the forts. The recent cruelty of Melandes and his company excited revenge in the breaſt of Gourges, and roused the unjuſtifiable principle of retaliation. He took the forts, put moſt of the Spaniards to the ſword, and having burned and demoliſhed all their fortreſſes, returned to France. During the 50 years next after this event, the French enterprized no ſettlements in America.

1576.] Capt. Frobiſher was ſent this year to find out a north-weſt paſſage to the Eaſt Indies. The firſt land which he made on the coaſt was a cape, which, in honour to the queen, he called *Queen Elizabeth's Foreland*. In coaſting northerly he diſcovered the ſtraits which bear his name. He proſecuted his ſearch for a paſſage into the weſtern ocean, till he was prevented by the ice, and then returned to England.†

June 11th, 1578.] In 1578, Sir Humphrey Gilbert obtained a patent from queen Elizabeth, for lands not yet poſſeſſed by any Chriſtian prince, provided he would take poſſeſſion within ſix years. With this encouragement he ſailed for America, and

* Hazard's Hiſt. Coll. Vol. I. page 23. Hackluyt calls this "The large penſion granted by K. Edward VI. to Sebaſtian Cabot, conſtituting him Grand Pilot of England.

† Hazard's Hiſtorical Collection, Vol. I. page 23.

1583.] on the firſt of Auguſt, 1583, anchored in Conception Bay. Afterwards he diſcovered and took poſſeſſion of St. John's Harbour, and the country ſouth of it. In purſuing his diſcoveries he loſt one of his ſhips on the ſhoals of Sablon, and on his return home, a ſtorm overtook him, in which he was unfortunately loſt, and the intended ſettlement was prevented.

1584.] This year two patents were granted by queen Elizabeth, one to Adrian Gilbert, (Feb. 6.) the other to Sir Walter Raleigh (Mar. 25.) for lands not poſſeſſed by any Chriſtian prince.* By the direction of Sir Walter, two ſhips were fitted and ſent out under the command of Philip Amidas, and Arthur Barlow, with 107 paſſengers. In June 1585 they arrived on the coaſt, and anchored in a harbour ſeven leagues weſt of the Roanoke. This colony returned to England in June, 1586. On the 13th of July, they, in a formal manner, took poſſeſſion of the country, and, in honour of their virgin queen Elizabeth, they called it *Virginia*. Till this time the country was known by the general name of *Florida*. After this VIRGINIA became the common name for all North America.

1586.] This year, Sir Walter Raleigh ſent Sir Richard Greenville to America, with ſeven ſhips. He arrived at Wococon harbour in June. Having ſtationed a colony of more than an hundred people at Roanoke, under the direction of Capt. Ralph Lane, he coaſted north-eaſterly as far as Cheſapeak Bay, and returned to England.

The colony under Capt. Lane endured extreme hardſhips, and muſt have periſhed, had not Sir Francis Drake fortunately returned to Virginia, and carried them to England, after having made ſeveral conqueſts for the queen in the Weſt Indies and other places.

A fortnight after, Sir Richard Greenville arrived with new recruits; and although he did not find the colony which he had before left, and knew not but they had periſhed, he had the raſhneſs to leave 50 men at the ſame place.

1587.] The year following, Sir Walter ſent another company to Virginia, under Governor White, with a charter and twelve aſſiſtants. In July he arrived at Roanoke. Not one of the ſecond company remained. He determined, however, to riſk a third colony. Accordingly he left 115 people at the old ſettlement, and returned to England.

This year (Aug. 13.) *Manteo* was baptized in Virginia. He was the firſt native Indian who received that ordinance in that part of America. He, with Towaye, another Indian, had viſited England, and returned home to Virginia with the colony. On the 18th of Auguſt, Mrs. Dare was delivered of a daughter, whom ſhe called VIRGINIA. She was born at Roanoke, and was the firſt Engliſh child that was born in North America.

1590.] In the year 1590, Governor White came over to Virginia with ſupplies and recruits for his colony; but, to his great grief, not a man was to be found. They had all miſerably famiſhed with hunger, or were maſſacred by the Indians.

1602.] In the ſpring of this year, Bartholomew Goſnold, with 32 perſons, made a voyage to North Virginia, and diſcovered and gave names to Cape Cod, Martha's Vineyard, and Elizabeth Iſlands, and to Dover Cliff. Elizabeth Iſland was the place which they fixed for their firſt ſettlement. But the courage of thoſe who were to have tarried, failing, they all went on board and returned to England. All the attempts to ſettle this continent which were made by the Dutch, French, and Engliſh, from its

* Hazard's Hiſt. Coll. Vol. I. p. 28 and 33.

diſcovery

diſcovery to the preſent time, a period of 110 years, proved ineffectual. The Spaniards only, of all the European nations, had been ſucceſsful. There is no account of there having been one European family, at this time, in all the vaſt extent of coaſt from Florida to Greenland.

1603.] Martin Pring and William Brown were this year ſent by Sir Walter Raleigh, with two ſmall veſſels, to make diſcoveries in North Virginia. They came upon the coaſt which was broken with a multitude of iſlands, in latitude 43° 30′ north. They coaſted ſouthward to Cape Cod Bay; thence round the Cape into a commodious harbour in latitude 41° 25′ where they went aſhore and tarried ſeven weeks, during which time they loaded one of their veſſels with ſaſſafras, and returned to England.

Bartholemew Gilbert, in a voyage to South Virginia, in ſearch of the third colony which had been left there by Governor White, in 1587, having touched at ſeveral of the Weſt India Iſlands, landed near Cheſapeak Bay, where, in a ſkirmiſh with the Indians, he and four of his men were unfortunately ſlain. The reſt, without any further ſearch for the colony returned to England.

France, being at this time in a ſtate of tranquillity in conſequence of the edict of Nantz in favor of the Proteſtants, paſſed by Henry IV. (April 1598) and of the peace with Philip, king of Spain and Portugal, was induced to purſue her diſcoveries in America. Accordingly the king ſigned a patent * in favor of De Mons, (November 8, 1603) of all the country from the 40th to the 46th degrees of north latitude, under the
1604.] name of *Acadia*. The next year De Mons ranged the coaſt from St. Lawrence to Cape Sable, and round to Cape Cod.

1605.] In May 1605, George's Iſland and Pentecoſt Harbour were diſcovered by Capt George Weymouth. In May he entered a large river in latitude 43° 20′, (variation 11° 15′ weſt,) which Mr. Prince, in his Chronology, ſuppoſes muſt have been Sagadahok; but from the latitude, it was more probably the Piſcataqua. Capt. Weymouth carried with him to England five of the natives.

1606.] April 10th this year, James I. by patent, † divided Virginia into two colonies. The *ſouthern*, included all lands between the 34th and 41ſt degrees of north latitude. This was ſtyled the *firſt colony*, under the name of South Virginia, and was granted to the London Company. The *northern*, called the ſecond colony, and known by the general name of North Virginia, included all lands between the 38th and 45th degrees north latitude, and was granted to the Plymouth Company. Each of theſe colonies had a council of thirteen men to govern them. To prevent diſputes about territory, the colony which ſhould laſt place themſelves was prohibited to plant within an hundred miles of the other. There appears to be an inconſiſtency in theſe grants, as the lands lying between the 38th and 41ſt degrees are covered by both patents.

Both the London and Plymouth companies enterprized ſettlements within the limits of their reſpective grants. With what ſucceſs will now be mentioned.

Mr. Piercy, brother to the Earl of Northumberland, in the ſervice of the London Company, went over with a colony to Virginia, and diſcovered Powhatan, now James river. In the mean time the Plymouth company ſent Capt. Henry Challons, in a veſſel of fifty-five tons, to plant a colony in North Virginia; but in his voyage he was taken by a Spaniſh fleet and carried to Spain.

1607. } The London company this ſpring ſent Capt. Chriſtopher Newport, with
April 26. } three veſſels, to South Virginia. On the 26th of April he entered Cheſapeak Bay, and landed, and ſoon after gave to the moſt ſouthern point the name of *Cape Henry*,

* Hiſt. Coll. Vol. I. p. 45. † Ibid. p. 50.

which it ſtill retains. Having elected Mr. Edward Wingfield preſident for the
May 13.] year, they next day landed all their men, and began a ſettlement on James river, at a place which they called James Town. This is the firſt town that was
June 22.] ſettled by the Engliſh in North America. The June following, Capt. Newport ſailed for England, leaving with the preſident one hundred and four perſons.

Auguſt 22.] In Auguſt died Capt. Bartholemew Gofnold, the firſt projector of this ſettlement, and one of the council. The following winter James Town was burnt.

During this time, the Plymouth company fitted out two ſhips under the command of Admiral Rawley Gilbert. They ſailed for North Virginia on the 31ſt of May, with one hundred planters, and Capt. George Popham for their preſident. They arrived in Auguſt and ſettled about nine or ten leagues to the ſouthward of the mouth of Sagadahok river. A great part of the colony, however, diſheartened by the ſeverity of the winter, returned to England in December, leaving their preſident, Capt. Popham, with only forty-five men.

It was in the fall of this year that the famous Mr. Robinſon, with part of his congregation, who afterwards ſettled at Plymouth in New-England, removed from the north of England to Holland, to avoid the cruelties of perſecution, and for the ſake of enjoying "purity of worſhip and liberty of conſcience."

This year a ſmall company of merchants at Dieppe and St. Malo's founded Quebec, or rather the colony which they ſent built a few huts there, which did not take the form of a town until the the reign of Lewis XIV.

1608.] Sagadahok colony ſuffered incredible hardſhips after the departure of their friends in December. In the depth of winter, which was extremely cold, their ſtore-houſe caught fire and was conſumed, with moſt of their proviſions and lodgings. Their misfortunes were increaſed ſoon after by the death of their preſident. Rawley Gilbert was appoinied to ſucceed him.

Lord Chief Juſtice Popham made every exertion to keep this colony alive, by repeatedly ſending them ſupplies. But the circumſtance of his death, which happened this year, together with that of preſident Gilbert's being called to England to ſettle his affairs, broke up the colony, and they all returned with him to England.

The unfavourable reports which theſe firſt unfortunate adventurers propagated reſpecting the country, prevented any further attempts to ſettle North Virginia for ſeveral years after.

1609.] The London Company, laſt year, ſent Capt. Nelſon, with two ſhips and one hundred and twenty perſons, to James Town; and this year, Capt. John Smith, afterwards preſident, arrived on the coaſt of South Virginia, and by ſailing up a number of the rivers, diſcovered the interior country. In September, Capt. Newport arrived with ſeventy perſons, which increaſed the colony to two hundred ſouls.

Mr. Robinſon and his congregation, who had ſettled at Amſterdam, removed this year to Leyden; where they remained more than eleven years, till a part of them came over to New-England.

The council for South Virginia having reſigned their old commiſſion, * requeſted and obtained a new one; in conſequence of which they appointed Sir Thomas Weſt, Lord De la War, general of the colony; Sir Thomas Gates, his lieutenant; Sir George Somers, admiral; Sir Thomas Dale, high marſhall; Sir Ferdinand Wainman, general of the horſe; and Capt. Newport, vice-admiral.

* The ſecond Charter of Virginia bears date May 23, 1609. Hiſt. Coll. Vol. I. p. 58.

June

June 8.] In June, Sir Thomas Gates, Admiral Newport, and Sir George Somers, with ſeven ſhips, a ketch and a pinnace, having five hundred ſouls on board, *July* 24.] men, women, and children, ſailed from Falmouth for South Virginia. In croſſing the Bahama Gulf, on the 24th of July, the fleet was overtaken by a violent ſtorm, and ſeparated. Four days after, Sir George Somers ran his veſſel aſhore on one of the Bermuda Iſlands, which, from this circumſtance, have been called the Somer Iſlands. The people on board, one hundred and fifty in number, all got ſafe on ſhore; and there remained until the following May. The remainder of the fleet arrived at Virginia in Auguſt. The colony was now increaſed to five hundred men. Capt. Smith, then preſident, a little before the arrival of the fleet, had been very badly burnt by means of ſome powder which had accidently caught fire. This unfortunate circumſtance, together with the oppoſition he met with from thoſe who had lately arrived, induced him to leave the colony and return to England; which he accordingly did the laſt of September. Francis Weſt, his ſucceſſor in office, ſoon followed him, and George Piercy was elected preſident.

1610.] The year following, the South Virginia or London company, ſealed a patent to Lord De la War, conſtituting him Governor and Captain General of South Virginia. He ſoon after embarked for America with Capt. Argal and one hundred and fifty men in three ſhips.

The unfortunate people, who, the year before, had been ſhipwrecked on the Bermuda Iſlands, had employed themſelves during the winter and ſpring, under the direction of Sir Thomas Gates, Sir George Somers, and Admiral Newport, in building a ſloop to tranſport themſelves to the continent. They embarked for Virginia on the 10th of May, with about one hundred and fifty perſons on board; leaving two of their men behind, who choſe to ſtay; and landed at James Town on the 23d of the ſame month. Finding the colony, which at the time of Capt. Smith's departure, conſiſted of five hundred ſouls, now reduced to ſixty, and thoſe few in a diſtreſſed and wretched ſituation, they with one voice reſolved to return to England; and for this purpoſe, on the 7th of June, the whole colony repaired on board their veſſels, broke up the ſettlement, and ſailed down the river on their way to their native country.

Fortunately, Lord De la War, who had embarked for James Town the March before, met them the day after they ſailed, and perſuaded them to return with him to James Town, where they arrived and landed the 10th of June. The government of the colony of right devolved upon Lord De la War. From this time we may date the effectual ſettlement of Virginia. Its hiſtory from this period will be given in its proper place.

As early as the year 1607 and 1608, Henry Hudſon, an Engliſhman, under a commiſſion from King James, in the employ of certain merchants, made ſeveral voyages for the diſcovery of a north-weſt paſſage to the Eaſt Indies. In 1609, upon ſome miſunderſtanding, he engaged in the Dutch ſervice, in the proſecution of the ſame deſign, and on his return ranged along the ſea coaſt of what has ſince been called New England, (which, three years before was granted by King James to his Engliſh ſubjects, the Plymouth Company) and entered Hudſon's river, giving it his own name. He aſcended this river in his boat as far as what has ſince been called Aurania or Albany. In 1613, the Dutch Weſt India company ſent ſome perſons to this river, to trade with the Indians; and as early as 1623, the Dutch had a trading houſe on Connecticut river. In conſequence of theſe diſcoveries and ſettlements, the Dutch claimed all the country extending from Cape Cod to Cape Henlopen along the ſea coaſt, and as far back into the country as any of the rivers within thoſe limits extend. But their claim

has been disputed. This extensive country, the Dutch called *New Netherlands*, and in 1614 the States General granted a patent to sundry merchants for an exclusive trade on Hudson's river, who the same year, (1614) built a fort on the west side near
1614.] Albany. From this time we may date the settlement of New York, the history of which will be annexed to a description of the State.

Conception Bay, on the island of Newfoundland, was settled in the year 1610, by about forty planters under Governor John Guy, to whom King James had given a patent of incorporation.[o]

Chaplain, a Frenchman, had begun a settlement at Quebec 1608. St. Croix, Mount Mansel, and Port Royal were settled about the same time. These settlements remained undisturbed till 1613, when the Virginians, hearing that the French had settled within their limits, sent Capt. Argal to dislodge them. For this purpose he sailed to Sagadahok, took their forts at Mount Mansel, St. Croix, and Port Royal, with their vessels, ordnance, cattle and provisions, and carried them to James Town in Virginia. Quebec was left in possession of the French.

1614.] This year Capt. John Smith, with two ships and forty-five men and boys, made a voyage to North Virginia, to make experiments upon a gold and copper mine. His orders were, to fish and trade with the natives, if he should fail in his expectations with regard to the mine. To facilitate this business, he took with him *Tantum*, an Indian, perhaps one that Capt. Weymouth carried to England in 1605. In April he reached the island Monahigan in latitude 43° 30′. Here Capt. Smith was directed to stay and keep possession with ten men, for the purpose of making a trial of the whaling business, but being disappointed in this, he built seven boats, in which thirty-seven men made a very successful fishing voyage. In the mean time the Captain himself with eight men only, in a small boat, coasted from Penobscot to Sagadahok, Acocisco, Passataquack, Tragabizanda, now called Cape Ann, thence to Acomac, where he skirmished with some Indians; thence to Cape Cod, where he set his Indian, Tantum, ashore, and left him, and returned to Monahigan. In this voyage he found two French ships in the Bay of Massachusetts, who had come there six weeks before, and during that time had been trading very advantageously with the Indians. It was conjectured that there were, at this time, three thousand Indians upon the Massachusetts islands.

In July, Capt. Smith embarked for England in one of the vessels, leaving the other under the command of Capt. Thomas Hunt, to equip for a voyage to Spain. After Capt. Smith's departure, Hunt perfidiously allured twenty Indians (one of whom was *Squanto*, afterwards so serviceable to the English) to come on board his ship at Patuxit, and seven more at Nausit, and carried them to the island of Malaga, where he sold them for twenty pounds each, to be slaves for life. This conduct, which fixes an indelible stigma upon the character of Hunt, excited in the breasts of the Indians such an inveterate hatred of the English, as that, for many years after, all commercial intercourse with them was rendered exceedingly dangerous.

Capt. Smith arrived at London the last of August, where he drew a map of the country, and called it NEW ENGLAND. From this time North Virginia assumed the name of *New England*, and the name *Virginia* was confined to the southern colony.

Between the years 1614 and 1620, several attempts were made by the Plymouth Company to settle New England, but by various means they were all rendered ineffectual. During this time, however, an advantageous trade was carried on with the natives.

1617.] In the year 1617, Mr. Robinson and his congregation, influenced by several weighty reasons, meditated a removal to America. Various difficulties intervened

1620.] vened to prevent the ſucceſs of their deſigns until the year 1620, when a part of Mr. Robinſon's congregation came over and ſettled at Plymouth. At this time commenced the ſettlement of New England.

The particulars relating to the firſt emigrations to this northern part of America, the progreſs of its ſettlement, &c. will be given in the hiſtory of New England, to which the reader is referred.

In order to preſerve the chronological order in which the ſeveral colonies, now grown into independent ſtates, were firſt ſettled, it will be neceſſary that I
1621.] ſhould juſt mention, that the next year after the ſettlement of Plymouth, Captain John Maſon obtained of the Plymouth Council a grant of a part of the
1623.] preſent State of New Hampſhire. Two years after, under the authority of this grant, a ſmall colony fixed down near the mouth of Piſcataqua river. From this period we may date the ſettlement of NEW HAMPSHIRE.

1627.] In 1627, a colony of Swedes and Finns came over and landed at Cape Henlopen; and afterwards purchaſed of the Indians the land from Cape Henlopen to the Falls of Delaware, on both ſides the river, which they called *New Swedeland Stream*. On this river they built ſeveral forts, and made ſettlements.

1628.] On the 19th of March, 1628, the Council for New England ſold to Sir Henry Roſwell, and five others, a large tract of land lying round Maſſachuſetts Bay. The June following, Capt. John Endicot, with his wife and company, came over and ſettled at Naumkeag, now called Salem.* This was the firſt Engliſh ſettlement which was made in MASSACHUSETTS BAY. Plymouth, indeed, which is now included in the commonwealth of Maſſachuſetts, was ſettled eight years before, but at this time it was a ſeparate colony, under a diſtinct government; and continued ſo, until the ſecond charter of Maſſachuſetts was granted by William and Mary in 1691; by which, Plymouth, the province of Main and Sagadahok, were annexed to Maſſachuſetts.

June 13, 1633.] In the reign of Charles the Firſt, Lord Baltimore, a Roman Catholic, applied for, and obtained a grant of a tract of land upon Cheſapeak Bay, about one hundred and forty miles long and one hundred and thirty broad. Soon after this, in conſequence of the rigour of the laws of England againſt the Roman Catholics, Lord Baltimore, with a number of his perſecuted brethren, came over and ſettled it, and in honour of Queen Henrietta Maria, they called it MARYLAND.

The firſt grant of Connecticut was made by Robert, Earl of Warwick, preſident of
Mar. 19th 1631.] the Council of Plymouth, to Lord Say and Seal, to Lord Brook and others, in the year 1631.† In conſequence of ſeveral ſmaller grants made after-
1631.] by the patentees to particular perſons, Mr. Fenwick made a ſettlement at
1635.] the mouth of Connecticut river, and called it *Saybrook*. About the ſame time

* "Among others who arrived at Naumkeag, were Ralph Sprague, with his brethren, Richard and William, who, with three or four more, by Governor Endicot's conſent, undertook a journey through the woods above twelve miles weſtward, till they came to a neck of land called *Miſhawum*, between Myſtic and Charles Rivers, full of Indians, named *Aberginians*. Their old Sachem being dead, his eldeſt ſon, called by the Engliſh, John Sagamore, was chief; a man of gentle and good diſpoſition, by whoſe free conſent they ſettled here; where they found but one Engliſh houſe thatched and palliſadoed, poſſeſſed by Thomas Walford, a ſmith." Prince's Chron. p. 174.

"June 1629, Mr. Thomas Graves removed from Salem to *Miſhawum*, and with the Governor's conſent called it *Charleſtown*. He laid the town out in two acre lots, and built the *Great Houſe*, which afterwards became the houſe of Public Worſhip. Mr. Bright, Miniſter." Ibid. p. 188.

† Hazard's Hiſt. Coll. p. 318.

a num-

1636.] a number of people from Maſſachuſetts Bay came and began ſettlements at Hartford, Wethersfield, and Windſor, on Connecticut river. Thus commenced the Engliſh ſettlement of CONNECTICUT.

Rhode Iſland was firſt ſettled in conſequence of religious perſecution. Mr. Roger Williams, who was among thoſe who came early over to Maſſachuſetts, not agreeing with ſome of his brethren in ſentiment, was very unjuſtifiably baniſhed the colony, and went with twelve others, his adherents, and ſettled at Provi-
1635.] dence in 1635. From this beginning aroſe the colony, now State of RHODE ISLAND.

1664.] On the 20th of March, 1664, Charles the Second granted to the Duke of York, what is now called NEW JERSEY, then a part of a large tract of country, by the name of New Netherland. Some parts of New Jerſey were ſettled by the Dutch as early as about 1615.

1662.] In the year 1662, Charles the Second granted to Edward Earl of Clarendon, and ſeven others, almoſt the whole territory of the three Southern States, North and South Carolina and Georgia. Two years after he granted a ſecond
1664.] charter, enlarging their boundaries. The proprietors, by virtue of authority veſted in them by their charter, engaged Mr. Locke to frame a ſyſtem of laws for the government of their intended colony. Notwithſtanding theſe preparations, no effectual ſettlement was made until the year 1669, (though one was attempted in 1667)
1669.] when Governor Sayle came over with a colony and fixed on a neck of land between Aſhley and Cooper rivers. Thus commenced the ſettlement of CAROLINA, which then included the whole territory between the 29° and 36° 30′ North latitude, together with the Bahama Iſlands, lying between latitude 22° and 27° North.

1681.] The Royal charter for Pennſylvania was granted to William Penn on the 4th March 1681. The firſt colony came over the next year and ſettled under
1682.] the proprietor, William Penn, who acted as governor from October 1682, to Auguſt 1684. The firſt aſſembly in the province of Pennſylvania was held at Cheſter, on the 4th of December 1682. Thus William Penn, a Quaker, juſtly celebrated as a great and good man, had the honour of laying the foundation of the preſent populous and very flouriſhing STATE of PENNSYLVANIA.

The proprietary government in Carolina was attended with ſo many inconveniencies, and occaſioned ſuch violent diſſenſions among the ſettlers, that the Parliament of Great Britain was induced to take the province under their immediate care. The proprietors, (except Lord Granville) accepted of £. 22,500 ſterling, from the crown for the property and juriſdiction. This agreement was ratified by act of par-
1729.] liament in 1729. A clauſe in this act reſerved to Lord Granville his eighth ſhare of the property and arrears of quit-rents, which continued legally veſted in his family till the revolution in 1776. Lord Granville's ſhare made a part of the preſent State of North Carolina. About the year 1729, the extenſive territory belonging to the proprietors was divided into North and South Carolina. They remained ſeparate royal governments until they became independent States.

For the relief of poor indigent people of Great Britain and Ireland, and for the ſecurity of Carolina, a project was formed for planting a colony between the rivers Savannah and Alatamaha. Accordingly, application being made to King George the Second, he iſſued letters patent, bearing date June 9th, 1732, for legally car-
1732.] rying into execution the benevolent plan. In honour of the king, who greatly encouraged the plan, they called the new province, GEORGIA. Twenty-one

truſtees

truſtees were appointed to conduct the affairs relating to the ſettlement of the province. The November following, one hundred and fifteen perſons, one of whom was General Oglethorp, embarked for Georgia, where they arrived; and landed at Yamacraw. In exploring the country, they found an elevated pleaſant ſpot of ground on the bank of a navigable river, upon which they marked out a town, and from the Indian name of the river which paſſed by it, called it Savannah. From this period we may date the ſettlement of GEORGIA.

The country now called Kentucky, was well known to the Indian traders many years before its ſettlement. They gave a deſcription of it to Lewis Evans, who
1752.] publiſhed his firſt map of it as early as the year 1752. James Macbride, with
1754.] ſome others, explored this country in 1754. Colonel Daniel Boon viſited it in 1769.

1773.] Four years after, Col. Boon and his family, with five other families, who were joined by forty men from Powle's valley, began the ſettlement of KENTUCKY, * which is now one of the moſt growing colonies, perhaps, in the world, and was erected into an independent ſtate, by act of Congreſs, December 6th, 1790, and received into the Union, June 1ſt, 1792.

The tract of country called VERMONT, before the late war, was claimed both by New York and New Hampſhire. When hoſtilities commenced between Great Britain and her colonies, the inhabitants conſidering themſelves as in a ſtate of nature, as to civil government, and not within any legal juriſdiction, aſſociated and formed for themſelves a conſtitution of government. Under this conſtitution, they have ever ſince continued to exerciſe all the powers of an independent State. Vermont was not admitted into union with the other ſtates till March 4th, 1791; yet we may
1777.] venture to date her political exiſtence as a ſeparate government, from the year 1777, becauſe, ſince that time, Vermont has to all intents and purpoſes been a ſovereign and independent State. The firſt ſettlement in this ſtate was made at Bennington as early as about 1764.

The extenſive tract of country lying north-weſt of the Ohio River, within the li-
1787.] mits of the United States, was erected into a ſeparate *temporary* government, by an ordinance of congreſs paſſed the 13th of July, 1787.

Thus we have given a ſummary view of the firſt diſcoveries and progreſſive ſettlement of North America in their chronological order.

The following recapitulation will comprehend the whole in one view.

Names of places.	*When ſettled.*	*By whom.*
Quebec, -	1608	By the French.
Virginia, -	June 10, 1610	By Lord De la War.
Newfoundland, -	June, 1610	By Governor John Guy.
New York, } -	about 1614	By the Dutch.
New Jerſey, }		
Plymouth, - -	1620	By part of Mr. Robinſon's congregation.
New Hampſhire, - -	1623	By a ſmall Engliſh colony near the mouth of Piſcataqua river.

* This ſettlement was made in violation of the Treaty, in 1768, at Fort Stanwix, which expreſsly ſtipulates, that this tract of country ſhould be reſerved for the weſtern nations to hunt upon, until they and the crown of England ſhould otherwiſe agree. This has been one great cauſe of the enmity of thoſe Indian nations to the Virginians. [*Col. Morgan.*

Names

Names of places.	*When ſettled.*	*By whom.*
Delaware, Pennſylvania,	1627	By the Swedes and Finns.
Maſſachuſetts Bay	1628	By Capt. John Endicot and company.
Maryland,	1633	By Lord Baltimore, with a colony of Roman Catholics.
Connecticut,	1635	By Mr. Fenwick, at Saybrook, near the mouth of Connecticut river.
Rhode Iſland	1635	By Mr. Roger Williams and his perſecuted brethren.
New Jerſey,	1664	Granted to the Duke of York by Charles II. and made a diſtinct government, and ſettled ſome time before this by the Engliſh.
South Carolina,	1669	By Governor Sayle.
Pennſylvania,	1682	By William Penn, with a colony of Quakers.
North Carolina,	about 1728	Erected into a ſeparate government, ſettled before by the Engliſh.
Georgia,	1732	By General Oglethorp.
Kentucky,	1773	By Col. Daniel Boon.
Vermont,	about 1764	By Emigrants from Connecticut and other parts of New England.
Territory N.W. of Ohio river.	1787	By the Ohio and other companies.

The above dates are from the periods when the firſt permanent ſettlements were made.

NORTH AMERICA.

BOUNDARIES AND EXTENT.

NORTH AMERICA comprehends all that part of the weſtern continent which lies north of the iſthmus of Darien, extending north and ſouth from about the 10th degree north latitude to the north pole; and eaſt and weſt from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean, between the 45th and 165th degrees weſt longitude from London. Beyond the 70th degree N. Lat. few diſcoveries have been made. In July 1779, Capt. Cook proceeded as far as lat. 71°, when he came to a ſolid body of ice extending from continent to continent.

BAYS, SOUNDS, STRAITS, AND ISLANDS. Of theſe (except thoſe in the United States, which we ſhall deſcribe under that head) we know little more than their names. Baffin's Bay, lying between the 70th and 80th degrees N. Lat. is the largeſt and moſt northern, that has yet been diſcovered in North America. It opens into the Atlantic ocean through Baffin's and Davis's Straits, between Cape Chidley, on the Labrador coaſt

coaſt, and Cape Farewell. It communicates with Hudſon's Bay to the ſouth, through a cluſter of iſlands. In this capacious bay or gulph is James Iſland, the ſouth point of which is called Cape Bedford; and the ſmaller iſlands of Waygate and Diſko. Davis's Straits ſeparate Greenland from the American continent, and are between Cape Walſingham, on James Iſland, and South Bay in Greenland, where they are about 60 leagues broad, and extend from the 67th to the 71ſt degrees of latitude above Diſko iſland. The moſt ſouthern point of Greenland is called Cape Farewell.

Hudſon's Bay took its name from Henry Hudſon, who diſcovered it in 1610. It lies between 51 and 69 degrees of north latitude. The eaſtern boundary of the Bay is Terra de Labrador; the northern part has a ſtraight coaſt, facing the bay, guarded with a line of iſles innumerable. A vaſt bay, called the Archiwinnipy Sea, lies within it, and opens into Hudſon's Bay, by means of gulph Hazard, through which the Beluga whales paſs in great numbers. The entrance of the bay, from the Atlantic ocean, after leaving, to the north, Cape Farewell and Davis's Straits, is between Reſolution iſles on the north, and Button's iſles, on the Labrador coaſt, to the ſouth, forming the eaſtern extremity of Hudſon's Straits.

The coaſts are very high, rocky and rugged at top; in ſome places precipitous, but ſometimes exhibit extenſive beaches. The iſlands of Saliſbury, Nottingham, and Digges are very lofty and naked. The depth of water in the middle of the bay is 140 fathoms. From Cape Churchill to the ſouth end of the bay are regular ſoundings; near the ſhore, ſhallow, with muddy or ſandy bottom. To the northward of Churchill, the ſoundings are irregular, the bottom rocky, and in ſome parts the rocks appear above the ſurface at low water.

James's Bay lies at the bottom, or moſt ſouthern part of Hudſon's Bay, with which it communicates, and divides New Britain from South Wales. To the northweſtward of Hudſon's Bay is an extenſive chain of lakes, among which is Lake Menichlich, lat. 61°, long. 105° W. North of this is Lake Dobount, to the northward of which lies the extenſive country of the northern Indians. Weſt of theſe lakes, between the latitudes of 60 and 66 degrees, after paſſing a large cluſter of unnamed lakes, lies the lake or ſea Arathapeſcow, whoſe ſouthern ſhores are inhabited by the Arathapeſcow Indians. North of this, and near the Arctic circle, is Lake Edlande, around which live the Dog-ribbed Indians. Further north is Buffaloe lake, near which, is Copper Mine river, in lat. 72° N. and long. 119° W. of Greenwich. The Copper Mine Indians inhabit this country.

Between Copper Mine river, (which according to Mr. Herne empties into the Northern ſea, where the tide riſes 12 or 14 feet, and which in its whole courſe is encumbered with ſhoals and falls) and the North-weſt coaſt of America, is an extenſive tract of unexplored country. As you deſcend from north to ſouth on the weſtern coaſt of America, juſt ſouth of the Arctic circle, you come to Cape Prince of Wales, oppoſite Eaſt Cape on the eaſtern continent; and here the two continents approach neareſt to each other. Proceeding ſouthward you paſs Norton Sound, Cape Stephen's, Shoalneſs, Briſtol Bay, Prince William's Sound, Cook's River, Admiralty Bay, and Port Mulgrave, Nootka Sound, &c. From Nootka Sound proceeding ſouth, you paſs the unexplored country of New Albion, thence to California, and New Mexico.

DIVISIONS OF NORTH AMERICA.

THE vaſt tract of country, bounded weſt by the Pacific Ocean, ſouth and eaſt by California, New Mexico, and Louiſiana—the United States, Canada and the Atlantic ocean, and extending as far north as the country is habitable (a few ſcattered Engliſh, French, and ſome other European ſettlements excepted) is inhabited wholly by various nations and tribes of Indians. The Indians alſo poſſeſs large tracts of country within the Spaniſh American and Britiſh dominions. Thoſe parts of North America not inhabited by Indians, belong (if we include Greenland) to Denmark, Great Britain, the American States, and Spain. Spain claims Eaſt and Weſt Florida, and all weſt of the Miſſiſſippi, and ſouth of the northern boundaries of Louiſiana, New Mexico and California. Great Britain claims all the country inhabited by Europeans, lying north and eaſt of the United States, except Greenland, which belongs to Denmark. The remaining part is the territory of the Fifteen United States. The particular Provinces and States, are exhibited in the following table:

TABLE.

Belonging to	*Countries, Provinces, and States.*	*Number of Inhabitants.*	*Chief Towns.*
Denm.	Greenland	10,000	New Herrnhut
Britiſh Provinces.	New Britain	unknown	
	Upper Canada	20,000	Kingſton, Detroit, Niagara
	Lower Canada	130,000	Quebec, Montreal
	Cape Breton I.	1,000	Sidney, Louiſburgh
	New Brunſwick	35,000	Fredericktown
	Nova Scotia		Halifax
	St. John's Iſl. in 1783	5,000	Charlottetown
	Newfoundland Iſland	7,000	Placentia, St. John's
United States of America.	Vermont	85,539	Windſor, Rutland
	New Hampſhire	141,885	Portſmouth, Concord
	Maſſachuſetts	387,787	Boſton, Salem, Newbury Port
	Diſtrict of Maine	96,540	Portland, Hallowell
	Rhode Iſland	68,825	Newport, Providence
	Connecticut	237,946	New Haven, Hartford
	New York	340,120	New York, Albany
	New Jerſey	184,139	Trenton, Burlington, Brunſwick
	Pennſylvania	434,373	Philadelphia, Lancaſter
	Delaware	59,094	Dover, Wilmington, Newcaſtle
	Maryland	319,728	Annapolis, Baltimore
	Virginia	747,610	Richmond, Peterſburgh, Norfolk
	Kentucky	73,677	Lexington
	North Carolina	393,751	Newbern, Edenton, Halifax
	South Carolina	249,073	Charleſton, Columbia
	Georgia	82,548	Savannah, Auguſta
	Territory S. of Ohio	35,691	Abingdon
	Territory N. W. of Ohio		Marietta

Belonging to	Countries, Provinces, and States.	Chief Towns.
Span. Provin.	East Florida	Auguſtine
	Weſt Florida	Penſacola
	Louiſiana	New Orleans
	New Mexico	St. Fee
	California	St. Juan
	Mexico, or New Spain	Mexico

GREENLAND.

THIS extenſive country properly belongs to neither of the two continents; unleſs, as ſeems probable, it be united to America to the northward of Davis' Straits. As it has commonly been deſcribed as belonging to Europe, we ſhall give Guthrie's account of it in our deſcription of that quarter of the Globe. From its contiguity to, and probable union with the American continent, however, it appears moſt proper to rank it among the countries of the weſtern continent; and we have accordingly given it a place in the table of diviſions of N. America, and ſhall here give a new deſcription of it from the beſt authorities extant.

BOUNDARIES AND EXTENT.] Greenland is bounded by Davis' Straits, which divide it from America, on the weſt; to the northward, it is not limited, except by ſome unknown ocean, or by the North pole; eaſt, it has the Icy ſea, and a ſtrait which ſeparates it from Iceland; ſouth-eaſt, it is waſhed by the Atlantic ocean; ſouth, it terminates in a point called Cape Farewell, in latitude 59 degrees north. From Cape Farewell, north-eaſterly, along the ſouth-eaſt ſhore, the coaſt has been diſcovered as far as 80 degrees north, and along the weſtern ſhore, up Davis' Straits, as far as the 78th degree.

Whether Greenland be an iſland, has not yet been decided, as no ſhip has yet penetrated higher than the 78th degree, on account of the ice. That it is not an iſland, but a part of the American continent, is rendered probable; 1ſt. Becauſe Davis' Straits,* or rather Baffin's Bay, grows narrower and narrower towards the 78th degree north. 2d. Becauſe the coaſt, which in other places is very high towards the ſea, grows lower and lower northward. 3d. The tide, which at Cape Farewell, and as far up as Cockin's Sound, in latitude 65°, riſes 18 feet at the new and full moon, decreaſes to the northward of Diſko, ſo that in latitude 70° it riſes little more than 8 feet, and probably continues to diminiſh, till there is no tide at all.† To the above may be added the relation of the Greenlanders, (which however cannot be much depended on) viz. that the ſtrait contracts itſelf ſo narrow at laſt, that they can go on

* Theſe ſtraits were firſt diſcovered by John Davis, an Engliſhman, in 1585, in his attempt to find a north-weſt paſſage to the Eaſt Indies.

† See "Ellis' Voyage to Hudſon's Bay for the Diſcovery of the N. W. Paſſage." p. 50 to 54. From the reaſons above, the Engliſh Capt. Baffin gave up all hope of finding a paſſage into the South Sea, through Davis' Straits, and conſequently concludes that Greenland joins America.

the ice ſo near to the other ſide as to be able to call to the inhabitants, and that they can ſtrike a fiſh on both ſides at once; but that there runs ſuch a ſtrong current from the north into the ſtrait, that they cannot paſs it.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] The weſtern coaſt, which is waſhed by Davis' Straits, is high, rocky, barren land, which rears its head, in moſt places cloſe to the ſea, in lofty mountains and inacceſſible cliffs, and meets the mariner's eye 40 leagues at ſea. All theſe, except the exceſſively ſteep and ſlippery rocks, are conſtantly covered with ice and ſnow, which has alſo, in length of time, filled all the elevated plains, and many valleys, and probably increaſes yearly. Thoſe rocks and cliffs, which are bare of ſnow, look, at a diſtance, of a dark brown, and quite naked as to any kind of growth; but by a nearer inſpection, they are found to be interſperſed with many veins of variegated colours of ſtone, here and there ſpread over with a little earth and turf.

POPULATION.] Moſt of the Greenlanders live to the ſouthward of the 62d degree of N. latitude, or as the inhabitants are wont to ſay, in the ſouth; but no Europeans live there, ſo that theſe parts are but little known. The European colonies have fixed themſelves to the northward of latitude 62°.

Formerly the weſtern part of Greenland was inhabited by ſome thouſands of Indians; but the ſmall pox, in 1733, almoſt depopulated this country, which is the fineſt part of Greenland.

A factor, who lived many years in the country, and whoſe accuracy, as far as the ſubject will admit, may be depended on, found, in the compaſs of 40 leagues, which was the circle of his dealings, 957 ſouls, conſtant reſidents, beſides occaſional viſitors. This part of Greenland is the moſt populous, except Diſko Bay, (which is the beſt place for trade) and the ſouthern parts. In other places, a perſon may travel 60 miles and not meet with a ſingle perſon. Suppoſe, however, that the country is inhabited for the ſpace of 400 leagues, and that there are 1000 ſouls for every 40 leagues, the amount would be 10,000. The above-mentioned factor thinks that there are not more than 7000, becauſe there are ſo many deſert places. He aſſerts, indeed, that the native Greenlanders, in 1730, amounted to 30,000; and when he made his firſt calculation in 1746, there were ſtill 20,000. Conſequently ſince that time their number has diminiſhed at leaſt one half.

CURIOSITIES.] The aſtoniſhing mountains of ice in this country may well be reckoned among its greateſt curioſities. Twelve leagues from the colony at Good Hope, lies the famous Ice-glance, called in ſome charts *Eis-blink*. It is a large high field of ice, whoſe glance in the air may be ſeen for many leagues at ſea, reſembling the Aurora Borealis. The mouth of an inlet, four leagues north of the colony, is blocked up in ſuch a manner, by many large pieces of ice driven out by the ebb, that it forms a phenomenon like an arched ice bridge, ſtretching from land to land, eight leagues in length, and two in breadth. The openings or arches of it are computed to be from 14 to 40 yards high. People might paſs through them in boats, if they were not afraid of the broken fragments of ice that often fall from the top and ſides of the arches. Places are found here where Greenland houſes once ſtood, which proves that the mouth of this harbour was once open.

Nothing can exhibit a more dreadful, and at the ſame time a more dazzling appearance, than thoſe prodigious maſſes of ice that ſurround the whole coaſt in various forms, reflecting a multitude of colours from the ſun beams, and calling to mind the enchanting ſcenes of romance. Such proſpects they yield in calm weather, but when the wind begins to blow, and the waves to riſe in vaſt billows, the violent ſhocks of thoſe pieces of ice daſhing againſt one another fill the mind with horror.

The ice mountains are pieces of ice floating in the ſea, of an amazing ſize, and of very curious forms: ſome have the appearance of a church or caſtle, with ſquare or pointed turrets; others, of a ſhip under ſail; and people have often given themſelves fruitleſs toil to go on board and pilot the imaginary ſhip into harbour; others look like large iſlands, with plains, vallies, and hills, which often rear their heads 200 yards above the level of the ſea. In Diſko Bay, on a ground which the whale fiſhers ſay is 300 fathoms deep, ſeveral ſuch ice mountains have ſtood faſt for many years, one of which they call the city Harlem, and another Amſterdam. This ice for the moſt part, is very hard, clear, and tranſparent as glaſs, of a pale green colour, and ſome pieces ſky blue—but if you melt it and let it freeze again it becomes white.

Tides, Springs, and Rivers.] The tide flows from ſouth to north, and riſes in common three fathoms in the ſouth; two, at Good Hope, and one at Diſko, and continues to decreaſe as you proceed north. It is remarkable that the wells and ſprings in the country riſe and fall, in exact conformity to the waxing and waning of the moon, or the ebbing and flowing of the tides. In winter, eſpecially, when all is covered over with ice and ſnow, new and briſk fountains of water riſe at ſpring tides, and diſappear again in places where there is commonly no water, and which are elevated far above the level of the ſea.

This country, in general, is not ſo well ſupplied with water as the hilly countries in warmer regions. Moſt of the ſprings which afford clear and wholeſome water have no other ſupply than the melted and imbibed ſnow water. In the vallies, large ponds are thinly interſperſed, which are fed by the ice and ſnow diſtilling from the mountains. The little ſtreams from the hills, called ſalmon elves, are not ſo conſiderable as the hill waters in more ſouthern latitudes.

The country does not admit of large rivers. The vallies are not long, for the mountains preſently ſhoot up aloft, and are covered with perpetual ice, which melts very little, and of courſe affords the ſprings but a ſcanty ſupply. Many ſprings are therefore dry in ſummer, and in the winter are arreſted by the froſt. Men and beaſts would then die of thirſt, if a wiſe Providence had not ordered, that in the hardeſt winter, rains and thaws ſometimes happen, when the filtrated ſnow water gathers in pools under the ice, and is thence taken by the inhabitants.

Air and Seasons.] As this country is covered, in moſt places, with everlaſting ice and ſnow, it is eaſy to imagine that it muſt be extremely cold. In thoſe places where the inhabitants enjoy the viſits of the ſun for an hour or two in a day in winter, the cold is tolerable, though even then ſtrong liquors will freeze, when out of the warm rooms. But where the ſun entirely forſakes the horizon, while people are drinking tea, the emptied cup will freeze on the table. Mr. Paul Edge, in his Journal of January 7th, 1738, records the following effects of cold at Diſko: "The ice and hoar froſt reaches through the chimney to the ſtove's mouth, without being thawed by the fire in the day time. Over the chimney is an arch of froſt with ſmall holes, through which the ſmoke diſcharges itſelf. The door and walls are as if they were plaſtered over with froſt, and, which is ſcarcely credible, beds are often frozen to the bedſtead. The linen is frozen to the drawers. The upper eider-down-bed and the pillows are quite ſtiff with froſt an inch thick, from the breath. The fleſh barrels muſt be hewn in pieces to get out the meat."

The moſt ſevere cold commences in January, and is ſo piercing in February and March, that the ſtones ſplit, and the ſea reeks like an oven, eſpecially in the bays. When this *froſt* ſmoke, as it is called, is waſted into the colder atmoſphere, it freezes into

into little icy particles, which are driven by the wind, and create ſuch a keen cold on the land, that one can ſcarcely leave the houſe without being frozen.

We may fix the limits of their ſummer from the beginning of May to the end of September; for during theſe five months the natives encamp in tents. The ground however is not thawed till June, and then only on the ſurface, and till then, it does not entirely leave off ſnowing. In Auguſt it begins to ſnow again, but the permanent ſnows do not fall till October. In the long ſummer days, the weather is ſo hot as to oblige the inhabitants to throw off their warm garments. The heat, in a clear ſunſhine upon the open ſea, has been known to be ſo great, as to melt the pitch on the ſides of a ſhip.

In ſummer there is no night in this country. Beyond the 66th degree, in the longeſt days, the ſun does not ſet; and at Good Hope, in latitude 64°, the ſun does not ſet till 10 minutes after 10 o'clock, and riſes again 50 minutes after one o'clock. The winter days are proportionably ſhort.

Productions, Mineral and Vegetable.] The amiantus and aſbeſtos, or ſtone flax, is found in plenty in the hills of this country. There are alſo quartzes and cryſtals in pretty large pieces, coarſe marble of all colours, iron ſtone and ore, and a ſoft ſtone called by ſome, French chalk, by others baſtard marble, out of which the inhabitants make all their veſſels. When rubbed with oil, it aſſumes a beautiful marble ſmoothneſs, and grows more firm and ſolid by being uſed over the fire.

Among the vegetables of this cold country are ſorrel of various ſorts, angelica, wild tanſey, ſcurvy graſs in great quantities, wild roſemary, dandelions in plenty, and various ſorts of graſs. Whortle-berries and cranberries grow here. Europeans have ſown barley and oats, which grow as high and thrifty as in warmer climates, but ſeldom advance ſo far as to ear, and never, even in the warmeſt places, to maturity, becauſe the froſty nights begin too ſoon.

Animals.] Unfruitful as this country is, it affords food for ſome, though but few kinds of beaſts, which furniſh the natives with food and raiment. Of the wild game, are white hares, rein deer, foxes, and white bears, who are fierce and miſchievous. The Greenlanders have no tame animals but a ſpecies of dogs, which reſemble wolves.

The *Seal* of Greenland is a quadruped, and amphibious. There are ſeveral ſorts of them, but they are alike in having a tough hairy ſkin, like the land animals, except that the hair is thick, ſhort and ſmooth. They have two ſhort feet before, ſtanding downwards, for the conveniency of rowing, and behind they have alſo two ſtanding outwards for ſteering, one on each ſide of the tail. They have five toes on their feet, each conſiſting of four joints, and terminating in a long nail or claw, with which they climb the ice or rocks. The hinder feet are webbed like thoſe of a gooſe, ſo that in ſwimming they ſpread them like a fan. The water is their proper element, and fiſh their food. Their fleſh affords the inhabitants a nouriſhing food, and their ſkins an excellent warm covering.

Religion.] The firſt miſſionaries among the Greenlanders entertained a doubt whether they had any conception of a Divine Being, as they had no word in their language by which to deſignate him. When they were aſked who made the heaven and earth, and all viſible things? their anſwer was—"We know not; or, we don't know him; or, it muſt have been ſome mighty perſon; or, things always have been as they are, and will always remain ſo." But when they underſtood their language better, they found they had ſome vague notions concerning the ſoul, and ſpirits; and were

were ſolicitous about the ſtate after death. It was evident alſo that they had ſome faint conceptions of a Divine Being.

They believe in the doctrine of the tranſmigration of ſouls—that the ſoul is a ſpiritual eſſence, quite different from the body—that it needs no corporeal nouriſhment—that it ſurvives the body, and lives in a future better ſtate, which they believe will never end. But they have very different ideas of this ſtate. Many place their *Elyſium* in the abyſſes of the ocean, or the bowels of the earth, and think the deep cavities of the rocks are the avenues leading to it. There dwells *Torngarſuck** and his mother; there a joyous ſummer is perpetual, and a ſhining ſun is obſcured by no night; there is the limpid ſtream, and abundance of fowls, fiſhes, rein deer, and their beloved ſeals, and theſe are all to be caught without toil, nay they are even found in a great kettle boiling alive. But to theſe delightful ſeats none muſt approach but thoſe who have been dextrous and diligent at their work, (for this is their grand idea of virtue) that have performed great exploits, and have maſtered many whales and ſeals, have undergone great hardſhips, have been drowned in the ſea, or died in childbed. The diſembodied ſpirit does not enter dancing into the Elyſian fields, but muſt ſpend five whole days, ſome ſay longer, in ſliding down a rugged rock, which is thereby ſmeared with blood and gore. Thoſe unfortunate ſouls which are obliged to perform this rough journey in the cold winter, or in boiſterous weather, are peculiar objects of their pity, becauſe they may be eaſily deſtroyed on the road, which deſtruction they call the ſecond death, and deſcribe it as a perfect extinction, and this, to them, is the moſt dreadful conſideration. Therefore during theſe five days or more, the ſurviving relations muſt abſtain from certain meats, and from all noiſy work, (except the neceſſary fiſhing) that the ſoul may not be diſturbed or periſh in its perilous paſſage. From all which, it is plain that the Greenlanders, ſtupid as they have been repreſented, have an idea that the good will be rewarded—and the bad puniſhed—and that they conceive a horror at the thoughts of the entire annihilation of the ſoul.

Others have their paradiſe among the celeſtial bodies, and they imagine their flight thither ſo eaſy and rapid, that the ſoul reſts the very ſame evening in the manſion of the moon, who was a Greenlander, and there it can dance and play at ball with the reſt of the ſouls; for they think the northern lights to be the dance of ſportive ſouls. The ſouls in this paradiſe are placed in tents round a vaſt lake abounding with fiſh and fowl. When this lake overflows, it rains on the earth, but ſhould the dam once break, there would be a general deluge.

The wiſer Greenlanders, who conſider the ſoul as a ſpiritual immaterial eſſence, laugh at all this, and ſay, if there ſhould be ſuch a material, luxuriant paradiſe, where ſouls could entertain themſelves with hunting, ſtill it can only endure for a time; afterwards the ſouls will certainly be conveyed to the peaceful manſions: but they know not what their food or employment will be. On the other hand, they place their hell in the ſubterraneous regions, which are devoid of light and heat, and filled with perpetual terror and anxiety. This laſt ſort of people lead a regular life, and refrain from every thing they think is evil.

History.] Weſt Greenland was firſt peopled by Europeans in the eighth century. At that time a company of Icelanders, headed by one Ericke Rande, were by accident driven on the coaſt. On his return he repreſented the country in ſuch a favourable light, that ſome families again followed him thither, where they ſoon became a thriving colony, and beſtowed on their new habitation the name of *Groenland*, or *Greenland*, on account of its verdant appearance. This colony was converted to Chriſtianity by a

* The name of the good ſpirit, anſwering to the heathen Jupiter.

miſſionary

miſſionary from Norway, ſent thither by the celebrated Olaf, the firſt Norwegian monarch who embraced the true religion. The Greenland ſettlement continued to increaſe and thrive under his protection; and in a little time the country was provided with many towns, churches, convents, biſhops, &c. under the juriſdiction of the Archbiſhop of Drontheim. A conſiderable commerce was carried on between Greenland and Norway; and a regular intercourſe maintained between the two countries till the year 1406, when the laſt biſhop was ſent over. From that time all correſpondence was cut off, and all knowledge of Greenland has been buried in oblivion.

This ſtrange and abrupt ceſſation of all trade and intercourſe has been attributed to various cauſes; but the moſt probable is the following: the colony, from its firſt ſettlement, had been harraſſed by the natives, a barbarous and ſavage people, agreeing in cuſtoms, garb, and appearance, with the Eſquimaux found about Hudſon's Bay. This nation, called *Schrellings*, at length prevailed againſt the Iceland ſettlers who inhabited the weſtern diſtrict, and exterminated them in the 14th century: inſomuch, that when their brethren of the eaſtern diſtrict came to their aſſiſtance, they found nothing alive but ſome cattle and flocks of ſheep running wild about the country. Perhaps they themſelves afterwards experienced the ſame fate, and were totally deſtroyed by theſe Schrellings, whoſe deſcendants ſtill inhabit the weſtern parts of Greenland, and from tradition confirm this conjecture. They affirm that the houſes and villages, whoſe ruins ſtill appear, were inhabited by a nation of ſtrangers, whom their anceſtors deſtroyed. There are reaſons, however, for believing that there may be ſtill ſome deſcendants of the ancient Iceland colony remaining in the eaſtern diſtrict, though they cannot be viſited by land, on account of the ſtupendous mountains, perpetually covered with ſnow, which divide the two parts of Greenland; while they have been rendered inacceſſible by ſea, by the vaſt quantity of ice driven from Spitzbergen, or Eaſt Greenland. One would imagine that there muſt have been ſome conſiderable alteration in the northern parts of the world ſince the 15th century, ſo that the coaſt of Greenland is now become almoſt totally inacceſſible, though formerly viſited with very little difficulty. It is alſo natural to aſk, by what means the people of the eaſtern colony ſurmounted the above-mentioned obſtacles when they went to the aſſiſtance of their weſtern friends; how they returned to their own country; and in what manner hiſtorians learned the ſucceſs of their expedition? Concerning all this we have very little ſatisfactory information. All that can be learned from the moſt authentic records is, that Greenland was divided into two diſtricts, called *Weſt Bygd* and *Eaſt Bygd*; that the weſtern diviſion contained four pariſhes and 100 villages: that the eaſtern diſtrict was ſtill more flouriſhing, as being nearer to Iceland, ſooner ſettled, and more frequented by ſhipping from Norway. There are alſo many accounts, though moſt of them romantic and ſlightly atteſted, which render it probable that part of the eaſtern colony ſtill ſubſiſts, who, at ſome time or other, may have given the imperfect relation above mentioned. This colony, in ancient times, certainly comprehended twelve extenſive pariſhes, one hundred and ninety villages, a biſhop's ſee, and two monaſteries. The preſent inhabitants of the weſtern diſtrict are entirely ignorant of this part, from which they are entirely divided by rocks, mountains, and deſerts, and ſtill more frequently by their apprehenſion: for they believe the eaſtern Greenlanders to be a cruel, barbarous nation, that deſtroy and eat all ſtrangers who fall into their hands. About a century after all intercourſe between Norway and Greenland had ceaſed, ſeveral ſhips were ſent ſucceſſively by the kings of Denmark, in order to diſcover the eaſtern diſtrict; but all of them miſcarried. Among theſe adventurers, Mogens Heinſon, after having ſurmounted many difficulties and dangers, got ſight of the land, which, however, he could not approach. At his return, he pretended

pretended that the ſhip was arreſted in the middle of her courſe, by certain rocks of loadſtone at the bottom of the ſea. The ſame year, 1576, in which this attempt was made, has been rendered remarkable by the voyage of Captain Martin Frobiſher, ſent upon the ſame errand by Queen Elizabeth. He likewiſe deſcribed the land; but could not reach it, and therefore returned to England; yet not before he had ſailed ſixty leagues in the ſtrait, which ſtill retains his name, and landed on ſeveral iſlands, where he had ſome communication with the natives. He had likewiſe taken poſſeſſion of the country in the name of Queen Elizabeth; and brought away ſome pieces of heavy black ſtone, from which the refiners of London extracted a certain proportion of gold. In the enſuing ſpring, he undertook a ſecond voyage at the head of a ſmall ſquadron, equipped at the expence of the public; entered the ſtraits a ſecond time; diſcovered upon an iſland a gold and ſilver mine; beſtowed names on different bays, iſlands, and headlands; and brought away a lading of ore, together with two natives, a male and a female, whom the Engliſh kidnapped.

Such was the ſucceſs of this voyage, that another armament was fitted out under the auſpices of Admiral Frobiſher, conſiſting of fifteen ſail, including a conſiderable number of ſoldiers, miners, ſmelters, carpenters, and bakers, to remain all winter near the mines in a wooden fort, the different pieces of which they carried out in their tranſports. They met with boiſterous weather, impenetrable fogs, and violent currents, upon the coaſt of Greenland, which retarded their operations until the ſeaſon was far advanced. Part of their wooden fort was loſt at ſea; and they had neither proviſion nor fuel ſufficient for the winter. The admiral therefore determined to return with as much ore as he could procure: of this they obtained large quantities out of a new mine, to which they gave the name of the Counteſs of Suſſex. They likewiſe built an houſe of ſtone and lime, provided with ovens; and here, with a view to conciliate the affections of the natives, they left a quantity of ſmall morrice-bells, knives, beads, looking-glaſſes, leaden pictures, and other toys, together with ſeveral loaves of bread. They buried the timber of the fort where it could be eaſily found next year; and ſowed corn, peas, and other grain, by way of experiment, to know what the country would produce. Having taken theſe precautions, they ſailed from thence in the beginning of September; and after a month's ſtormy paſſage, arrived in England: but this noble deſign was never proſecuted.

Chriſtian IV. King of Denmark, being deſirous of diſcovering the old Greenland ſettlement, ſent three ſhips thither, under the command of Captain Godſke Lindenow; who is ſaid to have reached the eaſt coaſt of Greenland, where he traded with the ſavage inhabitants, ſuch as they are ſtill found in the weſtern diſtrict, but ſaw no ſigns of a civilized people. Had he actually landed in the eaſtern diviſion, he muſt have perceived ſome remains of the ancient colony, even in the ruins of their convents and villages. Lindenow kidnapped two of the natives, who were conveyed to Copenhagen; and the ſame cruel fraud* was practiſed by two other ſhips which ſailed

* Nothing can be more inhuman and repugnant to the dictates of common juſtice, than this practice of tearing away poor creatures from their country, their families, and connections, unleſs we ſuppoſe them altogether deſtitute of natural affection; and that this was not the caſe with thoſe poor Greenlanders, ſome of whom were brought alive to Copenhagen, appears from the whole tenor of their conduct, upon their firſt capture, and during their confinement in Denmark. When firſt captivated, they rent the air with their cries and lamentations: they even leaped into the ſea; and, when taken on board, for ſome time refuſed all ſuſtenance. Their eyes were continually turned towards their dear country, and their faces always bathed in tears. Even the countenance of his Daniſh majeſty, and the careſſes of the court and people, could not alleviate their grief. One of them was perceived to ſhed tears always when he ſaw an infant in the mother's

arms;

ſailed into Davis's Straits, where they diſcovered divers fine harbours and delightful meadows covered with verdure. In ſome places they are ſaid to have found a conſiderable quantity of ore, every hundred pounds of which yielded twenty-ſix ounces of ſilver. The ſame Admiral Lindenow made another voyage to the coaſt of Greenland in the year 1606, directing his courſe to the weſtward of Cape Farewell. He coaſted along the ſtraits of Davis; and having made ſome obſervations on the face of the country, the harbours, and iſlands, returned to Denmark. Carſten Richards, being detached with two ſhips on the ſame diſcovery, deſcried the high land on the eaſtern ſide of Greenland; but was hindered by the ice from approaching the ſhore.

Other expeditions of the ſame nature have been planned and executed with the ſame bad ſucceſs, under the auſpices of a Daniſh company of merchants. Two ſhips returned from the weſtern part of Greenland loaded with a kind of yellow ſand, ſuppoſed to contain a large proportion of gold. This being aſſayed by the goldſmiths of Copenhagen, was condemned as uſeleſs, and thrown overboard: but from a ſmall quantity of this ſand, which was reſerved as a curioſity, an expert chemiſt afterwards extracted a quantity of pure gold. The captain, who brought home this adventure, was ſo chagrined at his diſappointment, that he died of grief, without having left any directions concerning the place where the ſand had been diſcovered. In the year 1654, Henry Moller, a rich Dane, equipped a veſſel under the command of David de Nelles, who ſailed to the weſt coaſt of Greenland, from which he carried off three women of the country. Other efforts have been made, under the efforts of the Daniſh king, for the diſcovery and recovery of the old Iceland colony in Greenland: but all of them miſcarried, and people began to look upon ſuch expeditions as wild and chimerical. At length the Greenland company at Bergen in Norway tranſported a colony to the weſtern coaſt, about the 64th degree of latitude, and theſe Norwegians ſailed in the year 1712, accompanied by the Reverend Hans Egede, to whoſe care, ability, and preciſion, we owe the beſt and moſt authentic account of modern Greenland. This gentleman endeavoured to reach the eaſtern diſtrict, by coaſting ſouthwards, and advanced as far as the States Promontory: but the ſeaſon of the year, and continual ſtorms, obliged him to return; and as he could not even find the Strait of Frobiſher, he concluded that no ſuch place ever exiſted. In the year 1724, a ſhip, being equipped by the company, ſailed on this diſcovery, with a view to land on the eaſt ſide oppoſite to Iceland; but the vaſt ſhoals of ice, which barricadoed that part of the coaſt, rendered this ſcheme impracticable. His Daniſh majeſty, in the year 1728, cauſed horſes to be tranſported to Greenland, in hopes that the ſettlers might, by their means, travel over land to the eaſtern diſtrict; but the icy mountains were found impaſſable. Finally, Lieutenant Richards, in a ſhip which had wintered near the new Daniſh colony, attempted, in his return to Denmark, to land on the eaſtern ſhore, but all his endeavours proved abortive.

Mr. Egede is of opinion, that the only practicable method of reaching that part of the country, will be to coaſt north-about in ſmall veſſels, between the great flakes of

arms; a circumſtance from whence it was naturally concluded, that he had left his wife with a young child in Greenland. Two of them went to ſea in their little canoes in hope of reaching Greenland; but one of them was retaken. Other two made the ſame attempt, but were driven by a ſtorm on the coaſt of Schonen, where they were apprehended by the peaſants, and reconveyed to Copenhagen. One of them afterwards died of a fever, caught in fiſhing pearl, during the winter, for the governor of Kolding. The reſt lived ſome years in Denmark; but at length, ſeeing no proſpect of being able to reviſit their native country, they ſunk into a kind of melancholy diſorder, and expired.

ice and the ſhore; as the Greenlanders have declared, that the currents continually iſſuing from the bays and inlets, and running ſouth-weſtwards along the ſhore, hinder the ice from adhering to the land; ſo that there is always a channel open, through which veſſels of ſmall burden might paſs, eſpecially if lodges were built at ſuitable diſtances on the ſhore, for the convenience and direction of the adventurers.

BRITISH AMERICA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

UNDER the general name of Britiſh America, we comprehend the vaſt and unknown extent of country, bounded ſouth, by the United States of America, and the Atlantic ocean; eaſt, by the ſame ocean and Davis's Straits, which divide it from Greenland; extending north to the northern limits of the Hudſon's Bay charter; and weſtward to an unknown extent—lying between 42° 30′ and 7° north latitude; and between 50° and 105° weſt long. from Greenwich; and between 25° eaſt and 30° weſt long. from Philadelphia.

DIVISIONS.] Britiſh America is divided into four provinces, viz. 1. Upper Canada; 2. Lower Canada, to which are annexed New Britain, or the country lying round Hudſon's Bay, and the Iſland of Cape Breton; 3. New Brunſwick; 4. Nova Scotia, to which is annexed the Iſland of St. John's. Beſides theſe there is the Iſland of Newfoundland, which is governed by the admiral for the time being, and two lieutenant governors, who reſide at Placentia and St. John's. The troops ſtationed at Newfoundland, however, are ſubject to the orders of the Governor-general of the four Britiſh Provinces.

NEW BRITAIN.

THE country lying round Hudſon's Bay, or the country of the Eſquimaux, comprehending Labrador, New North and South Wales, has obtained the general name of NEW BRITAIN, and is attached to the government of Lower Canada. A ſuperintendant of trade, appointed by the Governor-general of the four Britiſh Provinces, and reſponſible to him, reſides at Labrador.

RIVERS.] The principal rivers which water this country, are the Wager, Monk, Seal, Pockerekeſko, Churchill, Nelſon, Hayes, New Severn, Albany, and Mooſe rivers, all which empty into Hudſon's and James Bay from the weſt. The mouths of all the rivers are filled with ſhoals, except Churchill's, in which the largeſt ſhips may lie; but ten miles higher the channel is obſtructed by ſand banks. All the rivers as far as they have been explored, are full of rapids and cataracts, from ten to ſixty feet perpendicular. Down theſe rivers the Indian traders find a quick paſſage; but their return is a labour of many months.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, SOIL, &c.] As far inland as the Hudſon Bay Company have ſettlements, which is 600 miles to the weſt of Fort Churchill, at a place called Hudſon Houſe, lat. 53°, lon. 106° 27′ W. from London, is flat country: nor is it known how far to the eaſtward the great chain ſeen by navigators from the Pacific Ocean branches off. From Mooſe River, or the bottom of the bay, to Cape Churchill, the land is flat, marſhy, and wooded with pines, birch, larch, and willows. From Cape Churchill, to Wager's River, the coaſts are high and rocky to the very ſea, and woodleſs, except the mouths of Pockerekeſko and Seal rivers. The hills on their back are naked, nor are there any trees for a great diſtance inland,

The eaſtern coaſt is barren, paſt the efforts of cultivation. The ſurface is every where uneven, and covered with maſſes of ſtone of an amazing ſize. It is a country of fruitleſs and frightful mountains, ſome of an aſtoniſhing height. The vallies are full of lakes, formed not from ſprings, but rain and ſnow, ſo chilly as to be productive of a few ſmall trout only. The mountains have here and there a blighted ſhrub, or a little moſs. The vallies are full of crooked, ſtunted trees, pines, fir, birch, and cedars, or rather a ſpecies of the juniper. In latitude 60°, on this coaſt, vegetation ceaſes. The whole ſhore, like that on the weſt, is faced with iſlands at ſome diſtance from land.

INHABITANTS, CUSTOMS, &c.] The inhabitants among the mountains are Indians; along the coaſts, Eſquimaux. The dogs of the former are very ſmall; of the latter, large, and headed like a fox. Notwithſtanding they have rein deer, they never train them for the ſledge, but apply their dogs to that uſe. Walruſes viſit a place called Nuchvunk, in latitude 60°, during winter; from thence the natives purchaſe the teeth with which they head their darts.

The laudable zeal of the Moravian clergy induced them, in the year 1752, to ſend miſſionaries from Greenland to this country. They fixed on Neſbit's harbour for their ſettlement; but of the firſt party, ſome of them were killed, and the others driven away. In 1764, under the protection of the Britiſh government, another attempt was made. The miſſionaries were well received by the Eſquimaux, and the miſſion goes on with ſucceſs.

CLIMATE.] The climate, even about Haye's river, in only lat. 57°, is, during winter, exceſſively cold: The ſnows begin to fall in October, and continue falling by intervals the whole winter; and, when the froſt is moſt rigorous, in form of the fineſt ſand. The ice on the rivers is eight feet thick. Port wine freezes into a ſolid maſs; brandy coagulates. The very breath falls on the blankets of the beds in the form of a hoar froſt, and the bed cloaths often are found frozen to the wall. The ſun riſes, in the ſhorteſt day, five minutes paſt nine, and ſets five minutes before three. In the longeſt day the ſun riſes at three, and ſets about nine. The ice begins to diſappear in May, and hot weather commences about the middle of June, which at times is ſo violent as to ſcorch the faces of the hunters. Thunder is not frequent, but very violent. But there muſt be a great difference of heat and cold in this vaſt extent, which reaches from lat. 50. 40, to lat. 63 north.—During winter the firmament is not without its beauties. Mock ſuns, halos are not unfrequent; they are very bright, and richly tinged with all the colours of the rainbow. The ſun riſes and ſets with a large cone of yellowiſh light. The night is enlivened with the Aurora Borealis, which ſpreads a thouſand different lights and colours over the whole concave of the ſky, not to be defaced even by the ſplendour of the full moon; and the ſtars are of a fiery redneſs.

ANIMALS.]

ANIMALS.] The animals of theſe countries are, the mooſe deer, ſtags, rein deer, bears, tygers, buffaloes, wolves, foxes, beavers, otters, lynxes, martins, ſquirrels, ermines, wild cats, and hares. The rein deer paſs in vaſt herds towards the north in October, ſeeking the extreme cold. The male polar bears rove out at ſea, on the floating ice, moſt of the winter, and till June; the females lie concealed in the woods, or beneath the banks of rivers, till March, when they come abroad with their twin cubs, and bend their courſe to the ſea in ſearch of their conſorts. Several are killed in their paſſage; and thoſe that are wounded ſhow vaſt fury, roar hideouſly, and bite and throw up in the air even their own progeny. The females and the young, when not interrupted, continue their way to the ſea. In June the males return to ſhore, and by Auguſt are joined by their conſorts, with their cubs, by that time of a conſiderable ſize. The feathered kinds are, geeſe, buſtards, ducks, growſe, and all manner of wild fowls. Indeed multitudes of birds retire to this remote country, to Labrador and Newfoundland, from places more remotely ſouth, perhaps from the Antilles; and ſome even of the moſt delicate little ſpecies. Moſt of them, with numbers of aquatic fowls, are ſeen returning ſouthward with their young broods to more favourable climates. The ſavages in ſome reſpects regulate their months by the appearance of birds; and have their gooſe month, from the vernal appearance of geeſe, from the ſouth. All the growſe kind, ravens, cinereous crows, titmouſe, and Lapland finch, brave the ſevereſt winter; and ſeveral of the falcons and owls ſeek ſhelter in the woods. Of fiſh, there are whales, morſes, ſeals, codfiſh, and a white fiſh, preferable to herrings; and in their rivers and freſh waters, pike, perch, carp, and trout.

All the quadrupeds of theſe countries are clothed with a cloſe, ſoft, warm fur. In ſummer there is here, as in other places, a variety in the colours of the ſeveral animals; when that ſeaſon is over, which holds only for three months, they all aſſume the livery of winter, and every ſort of beaſts, and moſt of their fowls, are of the colour of the ſnow; every thing animate and inanimate is white. This is a ſurpriſing phenomenon. But what is yet more ſurpriſing, and what is indeed one of the moſt ſtriking things, that draw the moſt inattentive to an admiration of the wiſdom and goodneſs of Providence, is, that the dogs and cats from Britain that have been carried into Hudſon's Bay, on the approach of winter, have entirely changed their appearance, and acquired a much longer, ſofter, and thicker coat of hair than they had originally.

DISCOVERY AND COMMERCE.] The knowledge of theſe northern ſeas and countries was owing to a project ſtarted in England for the diſcovery of a north-weſt paſſage to China and the Eaſt Indies, as early as the year 1576. Since then it has been frequently dropped and as often revived, but never yet completed; and from the late voyages of diſcovery it ſeems probable, that no practicable paſſage ever can be found. Frobiſher diſcovered the Main of New Britain, or Terra de Labrador, and thoſe ſtraits to which he has given his name. In 1585, John Davis ſailed from Portſmouth, and viewed that and the more northern coaſts, but he ſeems never to have entered the bay. Hudſon made three voyages on the ſame adventure, the firſt in 1607, the ſecond in 1608, and his third and laſt in 1610. This bold and judicious navigator entered the ſtraits that lead into the bay known by his name, coaſted a great part of it, and penetrated to eighty degrees and a half, into the heart of the frozen zone. His ardour for the diſcovery not being abated by the difficulties he ſtruggled with in this empire of winter, and world of froſt and ſnow, he ſtayed here until the enſuing ſpring, and prepared, in the beginning of 1611; to purſue his diſcoveries, but his crew, who ſuffered equal hardſhips, without the ſame ſpirit to ſupport them, mutinied, ſeized upon him and ſeven of thoſe who were moſt faithful to him, and committed them to the fury of the

icy ſeas in an open boat. Hudſon and his companions were either ſwallowed up by the waves, or gaining the inhoſpitable coaſt, were deſtroyed by the ſavages; but the ſhip and the reſt of the men returned home.

Other attempts towards a diſcovery were made in 1612 and 1667; and a patent for planting the country, with a charter for a company, was obtained in the year 1670. In 1646 Captain Ellis wintered as far north as 57 degrees and a half, and Captain Chriſtopher attempted farther diſcoveries in 1361. But beſides theſe voyages, we are indebted to the Hudſon's Bay Company for a journey by land; * which throws much additional light on this matter, by affording what may be called demonſtration, how much farther North, at leaſt in ſome parts of their voyage, ſhips muſt go, before they can paſs from one ſide of America to the other. The northern Indians, who came down to the Company's factories to trade, had brought to their knowledge a river, which, on account of much copper being found near it, had obtained the name of the Copper Mine river. The Company being deſirous of examining into this matter with preciſion, directed Mr. Hearne, a young gentleman in their ſervice, and who having been brought up for the navy, and ſerved in it the war before laſt, was extremely well qualified for the purpoſe, to proceed over land, under the convoy of thoſe Indians, for that river; which he had orders to ſurvey, if poſſible, quite down to its exit into the ſea; to make obſervations for fixing the latitudes and longitudes; and to bring home maps and drawings, both of it and the countries through which he ſhould paſs.

Accordingly Mr. Hearne ſet out from Prince of Wales's Fort, on Churchill river, latitude 58° 47½′ North, and longitude 94° 7½′ Weſt from Greenwich, on the 7th of December, 1770. Mr. Hearne on the 13th of July reached the Copper Mine river, and found it all the way, even to its exit into the ſea, incumbered with ſhoals and falls, and emptying itſelf into it over a dry flat of the ſhore, the tide being then out, which ſeemed, by the edges of the ice, to riſe about 12 or 14 feet. This riſe, on account of the falls, will carry it but a very ſmall way within the river's mouth, ſo that the water in it has not the leaſt brackiſh taſte. Mr. Hearne is, nevertheleſs, ſure of the place it emptied itſelf into being the ſea, or a branch of it, by the quantity of whale bone and ſeal ſkins which the Eſquimaux had at their tents; and alſo by the number of ſeals which he ſaw upon the ice. The ſea, at the river's mouth, was full of iſlands and ſhoals, as far as he could ſee, by the aſſiſtance of a pocket teleſcope; and the ice was not yet (July 17th) broke up, but thawed away only for about three quarters of a mile from the ſhore, and for a little way round the iſland and ſhoals which lay off the river's mouth. But he had the moſt extenſive view of the ſea when he was about eight miles up the river, from which ſtation the extreme parts of it bore N. W. by W. and N. E.

By the time Mr. Hearne had finiſhed his ſurvey of the river, which was about one o'clock in the morning on the 18th, there came on a very thick fog and drizzling rain; and as he had found the river and ſea, in every reſpect unlikely to be of any utility, he thought it unneceſſary to wait for fair weather, to determine the latitude more exactly by obſervation; but by the extraordinary care he took in obſerving the courſes and diſtances, walking from *Congecathawhachaga*, where he had two very good obſervations, he thinks the latitude may be depended on within 10′ at the utmoſt. It appears from the map which Mr. Hearne conſtructed of this ſingular journey, that the mouth of the Copper Mine river lies in latitude 72° N. and longitude 25° W. from Churchill river; that is, about 119° W. of Greenwich. Mr. Hearne's journey back from the Copper

* See page 73.

Mine

Mine river to Churchill laſted till June 30th 1772; ſo that he was abſent almoſt a year and ſeven months. The unparalleled hardſhips he ſuffered, and the eſſential ſervice he performed, have met with a ſuitable reward from his maſters. He has been ſeveral years governor of Prince of Wales's Fort on Churchill river, where he was taken priſoner by the French in 1782.

Though the adventurers failed in the original purpoſe for which they navigated this bay, their project, even in its failure, has been of great advantage to England. The vaſt countries which ſurround Hudſon's Bay, as we have already obſerved, abound with animals, whoſe fur and ſkins are excellent. In 1670, a charter was granted to a company, which does not conſiſt of above nine or ten perſons, for the excluſive trade to this bay, and they have acted under it ever ſince with great benefit to the private men who compoſe the company, though comparatively with little advantage to Great Britain. The fur and peltry trade might be carried on to a much greater extent, were it not entirely in the hands of this excluſive company, whoſe intereſted, not to ſay iniquitous ſpirit, has been the ſubject of long and juſt complaint. The company employ four ſhips, and 130 ſeamen. They have ſeveral forts, viz. Prince of Wales's fort, Churchill river, Nelſon, New Severn, and Albany, which ſtand on the weſt ſide of the bay, and are garriſoned by 186 men. The French, in May 1782, took and deſtroyed theſe forts, and the ſettlements, &c. ſaid to amount to the value of 500,000l. They export commodities to the value of 16,000l. and carry home returns to the value of 29,340l. which yield to the revenue 3,734l. This includes the fiſhery in Hudſon's Bay. This commerce, ſmall as it is, affords immenſe profits to the company, and even ſome advantages to Great Britain in general; for the commodities exchanged with the Indians for their ſkins and furs, are all manufactured in Britain; and as the Indians are not very nice in their choice, ſuch things are ſent of which there is the greateſt plenty, and which, in the mercantile phraſe, are drugs. Though the workmanſhip too happens to be in many reſpects ſo deficient, that no civilized people would take it, it may be admired among the Indians. On the other hand, the ſkins and furs brought from Hudſon's Bay are manufactured, and afford articles for trading with many nations of Europe, to great advantage. Theſe circumſtances prove the immenſe benefit that would redound to Britain, by throwing open the trade to Hudſon's Bay, ſince even in its preſent reſtrained ſtate it is ſo advantageous. The only attempt made to trade with Labrador, has been directed towards the fiſhery. Great Britain has no ſettlement here. The annual produce of the fiſhery amounts to upwards of 49,000l.

UPPER AND LOWER CANADA.

THE Provinces of Upper and Lower Canada, conſtituted by act of Parliament in 1791, comprehend the territory heretofore called *Canada*, or the *Province of Quebec*.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 600 Breadth 550	between	61 and 81 W. lon. from London, or 14 E. and 6 W. from Philadelphia. 42 30 and 52 N. latitude.

BOUNDARIES

BOUNDARIES AND DIVISIONS.] Bounded north, by New Britain; eaſt, by the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and part of the Province of New Brunſwick; ſouth-eaſt and ſouth, by the Diſtrict of Main, New Hampſhire, Vermont, New York and the lakes; the weſtern boundary is undefined. The Province of Upper Canada is the ſame as what is commonly called the Upper Country. It lies north of the great lakes, between the latitudes of 42° 30′ and 50°, and is ſeparated from New York by the river St. Lawrence, here called the Cataraqui, and the Lakes Ontario and Erie.

Lower Canada lies on both ſides the river St. Lawrence, between 61° and 71° W. lon. from London; and 45° and 52° N. lat. and is bounded ſouth by New Brunſwick, Maine, New Hampſhire, Vermont, and New York; and weſt by Upper Canada.

The line which divides Upper from Lower Canada commences at a ſtone boundary, on the north bank of the lake St. Francis, at the cove weſt of *Pointe au Boudet*, in the limit between the townſhip of Lancaſter and the Seigneurie of New Longuevil, running along the ſaid limit in the direction of north thirty-four degrees weſt, to the weſternmoſt angle of the ſaid Seigneurie of New Longuevil; thence along the north-weſtern boundary of the Seigneurie of Vandreuil, running north, twenty-five degrees eaſt, until it ſtrikes the Ottawas river; to aſcend the ſaid river into the lake Tomiſcanning; and from the head of the ſaid lake by a line drawn due north, until it ſtrikes the boundary line of Hudſon's Bay or New Britain. Upper Canada, to include all the territory to the weſtward and ſouthward of the ſaid line, to the utmoſt extent of the country known by the name of Canada.

RIVERS.] The river St. Lawrence is one of the largeſt rivers in North America. It iſſues from Lake Ontario, forming the outlet of the long chain of great lakes, which ſeparate Upper Canada from the United States. It takes its courſe north-eaſt; waſhes the iſland of Montreal, which it emboſoms; juſt above which it receives Ottawas from the weſt, and forms many fertile iſlands. Continuing the ſame courſe, it meets the tide upwards of 400 miles from the ſea, and is ſo far navigable for large veſſels. Below Quebec it becomes broad and of ſufficient depth for ſhips of war. Having received in its courſe, beſides Ottawas, St. John's, Seguina, Deſpraires, Trois Rivieres, and innumerable other ſmaller ſtreams, it falls into the ocean at Cape Roſieres, by a mouth 90 miles broad. In its courſe it forms a great variety of bays, harbours and iſlands, many of them fruitful and extremely pleaſant.

A river has been lately ſurveyed, by the deputy Surveyor General of Canada, from its entrance into the Bay of Kenty, near Cadaraqui, to its ſource of Lake St. Clie; from which there is an eaſy and ſhort portage acroſs N. W. to the N. E. angle of Lake Huron; and another that is neither long nor difficult, to the ſouthward, to the old ſettlement of Toronto. This is a ſhort rout from Fort Frontinac to Michillimakkinak.

CLIMATE.] Winter continues with ſuch ſeverity from December to April, as that the largeſt rivers are frozen over, and the ſnow lies commonly from four to ſix feet deep during the winter. But the air is ſo ſerene and clear, and the inhabitants ſo well defended againſt the cold, that this ſeaſon is neither unhealthy nor unpleaſant. The ſprings open ſuddenly, and vegetation is ſurprizingly rapid. The ſummer is delightful, except that a part of it is extremely hot.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] Though the climate be cold, and the winter long and tedious, the ſoil is in general very good, and in many parts both pleaſant and fertile, producing wheat, barley, rye, with many other ſorts of grain, fruits, and vegetables; tobacco, in particular, thrives well, and is much cultivated. The iſle of Orleans, near

near Quebec, and the lands upon the river St. Lawrence and other rivers are remarkable for the richneſs of the ſoil. The meadow grounds in Canada, which are well watered, yield excellent graſs, and feed great numbers of great and ſmall cattle.

ANIMALS.] See this article under the head of the United States.

PRINCIPAL TOWNS.] Quebec is the capital, not only of Lower Canada, but of all Britiſh America, and is ſituated at the confluence of the rivers St. Lawrence and St. Charles, or the Little River, about 320 miles from the ſea. It is built on a rock, partly of marble, and partly of ſlate. The town is divided into an upper and lower. The houſes in both are of ſtone, and built in a tolerable manner. The fortifications are ſtrong, though not regular. The town is covered with a regular and beautiful citadel, in which the governor reſides. The number of inhabitants is computed at about 15,000. The river, which from the ſea hither is four or five leagues broad, narrows all of a ſudden to about a mile wide. The haven, which lies oppoſite the town, is ſafe and commodious, and about five fathoms deep. The harbour is flanked by two baſtions, that are raiſed 25 feet from the ground, which is about the height of the tides at the time of the equinox.

From Quebec to Montreal, which is about 170 miles, in ſailing up the river St. Lawrence, the eye is entertained with beautiful landſcapes, the banks being in many places very bold and ſteep, and ſhaded with lofty trees. The farms lie pretty cloſe all the way, ſeveral gentlemen's houſes, neatly built, ſhew themſelves at intervals, and there is all the appearance of a flouriſhing colony; but there are few towns or villages. It is pretty much like the well ſettled parts of Virginia and Maryland, where the planters are wholly within themſelves. Many beautiful iſlands are interſperſed in the channel of the river, which have an agreeable effect upon the eye. After paſſing the Richelieu iſlands, the air becomes ſo mild and temperate, that the traveller thinks himſelf tranſported to another climate; but this is to be underſtood only in the ſummer months.

The town called Trois Rivieres, or the Three Rivers, is about half way between Quebec and Montreal, and has its name from three rivers which join their currents here, and fall into the river St. Lawrence. It is much reſorted to by ſeveral nations of Indians, who, by means of theſe rivers, come hither and trade with the inhabitants in various kinds of furs and ſkins. The country is pleaſant, and fertile in corn, fruit, &c. and great numbers of handſome houſes ſtand on both ſides the river.

Montreal ſtands on an iſland in the river St. Lawrence, which is ten leagues in length, and four in breadth, at the foot of a mountain which gives name to it, about half a league from the ſouth ſhore. While the French had poſſeſſion of Canada, both the city and iſland of Montreal belonged to private proprietors, who had improved them ſo well, that the whole iſland had become a moſt delightful ſpot, and produced every thing that could adminiſter to the conveniencies of life. The city forms an oblong ſquare, divided by regular and well-formed ſtreets; and when taken by the Engliſh the houſes were built in a very handſome manner; and every houſe might be ſeen at one view from the harbour, or from the ſouthernmoſt ſide of the river, as the hill on the ſide of which the town ſtands falls gradually to the water. This place is ſurrounded by a wall and a dry ditch; and its fortifications have been much improved by the Engliſh. Montreal is nearly as large as Quebec, but ſince it fell into the hands of the Engliſh it has ſuffered much by fires.

The principal towns in Upper Canada are Kingſton, on Lake Ontario, Niagara, between Lake Ontario and Lake Erie, and Detroit, ſituated on the weſtern bank of

Detroit river, between Lake Erie and Lake Huron, and nine miles below Lake St. Clair.*

GOVERNMENT.] By the Quebec act, paſſed by the parliament of Great Britain in the year 1791, ſo much of the act of the 14th of George III. paſſed in the year 1774, as relates to the appointment of a council for the government of the province of Quebec, is repealed; and it is enacted that there ſhall be within each of the provinces of Upper and Lower Canada, a legiſlative council, and an aſſembly, who, with the conſent of the Governor, appointed by the King, ſhall have power to make laws. The Governor may give or withhold his Majeſty's aſſent to bills paſſed by the legiſlative council and aſſembly, or reſerve them for his Majeſty's pleaſure. Bills reſerved are to have no force till his Majeſty's aſſent is ſignified by the Governor, which, to be valid, muſt be ſignified within two years from the time the bill is preſented to the Governor. The Governor muſt tranſmit to the Secretary of State copies of ſuch bills as have been aſſented to, which his Majeſty in council may declare his diſallowance of within two years from the receipt.

The Legiſlative Council is to conſiſt of not fewer than ſeven members for Upper, and fifteen for Lower Canada, to be ſummoned by the Governor, who muſt be authorized by the King. Such members are to hold their ſeats for life; unleſs forfeited by four years continual abſence, or by ſwearing allegiance to ſome foreign power.

The Houſe of Aſſembly is to conſiſt of not leſs than ſixteen members from Upper, and not leſs than fifty from Lower Canada, choſen by the freeholders in the ſeveral towns and diſtricts. The council and aſſembly are to be called together at leaſt once in every year, and every aſſembly is to continue four years, unleſs ſooner diſſolved by the Governor. All queſtions are to be decided by a majority of votes of the members preſent. His Majeſty may authorize the Governor to fix the time and place of holding the elections, (ſubject, however, to ſuch proviſions as may hereafter be made by the Legiſlature) and to fix the times and places of holding the ſeſſions of the aſſembly, and to prorogue and diſſolve the ſame whenever he ſhall judge it neceſſary.

The Governor, together with ſuch of the executive council as ſhall be appointed by the King, for the affairs of each province, are to be a court of civil juriſdiction for hearing and determining appeals, ſubject, however, to ſuch appeals from their judgement as heretofore exiſted. All lands in Upper Canada are to be granted hereafter in free and common ſoccage; and alſo in Lower Canada, when the grantee ſhall deſire it, ſubject nevertheleſs to alterations by an act of the Legiſlature.

Britiſh America is ſuperintended by an officer ſtiled Governor General of the four Britiſh provinces in North America, who, beſides other powers, is commander in chief of all the Britiſh troops in the four provinces and the governments attached to them and Newfoundland. Each of the provinces have a Lieutenant Governor, who, in the abſence of the Governor General, has all the powers requiſite to a chief magiſtrate.

POPULATION.] Upper Canada, though an infant ſettlement, is ſaid by ſome to contain 40,000, by others, only 20,000 inhabitants. The truth probably is between them. Lower Canada, in 1784, contained 113,012 ſouls. Both provinces may now contain about 150,000 ſouls, which number is multiplying both by natural increaſe and by emigrations.

* Niagara and Detroit, though *now* in poſſeſſion of the Britiſh government, contrary to treaty of peace, are both within the limits of the United States.

RELIGION

RELIGION.] As many as about nine tenths of the inhabitants of theſe provinces are Roman Catholics, who enjoy under the preſent government, the ſame proviſion, rights, and privileges, as were granted them in 1774, by the act of 14th of George III. The reſt of the people are Epiſcopalians, Preſbyterians, and a few of almoſt all the different ſects of Chriſtians.

Agreeably to conſtitution, his Majeſty may authorize the Governor to make allotments of lands, for the ſupport of a Proteſtant clergy in each province, out of the crown lands already granted; and to the ſame purpoſe is to be appropriated the amount of one ſeventh of the value of all future grants of lands. His Majeſty may authorize the Governor, with the advice of the Executive Council, to erect parſonages, according to the eſtabliſhment of the church of England, within every townſhip, or pariſh already formed, or which may hereafter be formed; and to endow them with ſo much of the lands appropriated, as aforeſaid, as they ſhall judge to be expedient; and alſo to preſent to every ſuch parſonage, a miniſter of the church of England, duly ordained, who is to hold and enjoy in the ſame manner, and upon the ſame conditions, as incumbents in England. But preſentations to parſonages, and the enjoyment of them, are to be ſubject to the eccleſiaſtical juriſdiction granted to the biſhop of Nova Scotia.

TRADE.] The amount of the exports from the province of Quebec, in the year 1786, was £343,262: 19: 6. The amount of imports in the ſame year was £325,116. The exports conſiſted of wheat, flour, biſcuit, flaxſeed, lumber of various kinds, fiſh, potaſh, oil, ginſeng and other medicinal roots, but principally of furs and peltries, to the amount of £285,977. The imports conſiſted of rum, brandy, molaſſes, coffee, ſugar, wines, tobacco, ſalt, chocolate, proviſions for the troops, and dry goods.

HISTORY.] This country was diſcovered by the Engliſh as early as about 1497, and ſettled by the French in 1608, who kept poſſeſſion of it till 1760, when it was taken by the Britiſh arms, and at the treaty of Paris, in 1763, was ceded, by France, to the crown of England, to whom it has ever ſince belonged.

For the beſt hiſtory of this country the reader is referred to Charlevoix's hiſtory of it; to the Encyclopedia Britannica; articles, Canada, Quebec, and America, No. 195, 200, and 207.

THE ISLAND OF CAPE BRETON.

Annexed to the Province of LOWER CANADA.

THE iſland, or rather collection of iſlands, called by the French *Les Iſles de Madame*, which lie ſo contiguous as that they are commonly called but one, and comprehended under the name of the Iſland of Cape Breton, lies between lat. 45° and 47° N. and between 59° and 60°, W. long. from London, or 14° and 15° E. long. from Philadelphia, and about 45 leagues to the eaſtward of Halifax. It is about 100 miles in length, and 50 in breadth; and is ſeparated from Nova Scotia by a narrow ſtrait, called the *Gut of Canſo*, which is the communication between the Atlantic Ocean and the Gulf of St. Lawrence.

It is ſurrounded with little ſharp-pointed rocks, ſeparated from each other by the waves, above which ſome of their tops are viſible. All its harbours are open to the eaſt, turn-

ing towards the ſouth. On the other parts of the coaſt there are but a few anchoring places for ſmall veſſels, in creeks, or between iſlets. The harbour of St. Peter's, at the weſt end of the iſland, is a very commodious place for carrying on the fiſhery.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, CLIMATE, SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.] Except in the hilly parts, the ſurface of the country has but little ſolidity, being every where covered with a light moſs and with water. The dampneſs of the ſoil is exhaled in fogs, without rendering the air unwholeſome. In other reſpects, the climate is very cold, owing either to the prodigious quantity of lakes, which cover above half the iſland, and remain frozen a long time; or to the number of foreſts, that totally intercept the rays of the ſun; the effect of which is beſides decreaſed by perpetual clouds.

The inhabitants never applied themſelves to agriculture, the ſoil being unfit for it. They often ſowed corn, but it ſeldom came to maturity; and when it did thrive ſo much as to be worth reaping, it had degenerated ſo conſiderably, that it was not fit for ſeed for the next harveſt. They have only continued to plant a few potherbs that are tolerably well taſted, but muſt be renewed every year from abroad. The poorneſs and ſcarcity of paſtures has likewiſe prevented the increaſe of cattle. In a word, the ſoil of Cape Breton ſeems calculated to invite none but fiſhermen and ſoldiers.

Though the iſland was entirely covered with foreſts before it was inhabited, its wood has ſcarce ever been an object of trade. A great quantity, however, of ſoft wood, was found there, fit for firing, and ſome that might be uſed for timber; but the oak has always been ſcarce, and the fir never yielding much reſin.

POPULATION, CHIEF TOWNS, &c.] On this iſland there are about 1000 inhabitants, who have a lieutenant governor reſident among them, appointed by the king. The principal towns are Sidney, the capital, and Louiſburg, which has the beſt harbour in the iſland.

This iſland may be conſidered as the key to Canada, and the very valuable fiſhery, in its neighbourhood, depends for its protection on the poſſeſſion of this iſland; as no nation can carry it on without ſome convenient harbour of ſtrength to ſupply and protect it; and Louiſburg is the principal one for theſe purpoſes.

TRADE.] The peltry trade was a very inconſiderable object. It conſiſted only in the ſkins of a few lynxes, elks, muſk-rats, wild cats, bears, otters, and foxes, both of a red, ſilver, and grey colour. Some of theſe were procured from a colony of Micmac Indians, who had ſettled on the iſland with the French, and never could raiſe more than 60 men able to bear arms. The reſt came from St. John's or the neighbouring continent. Greater advantages might poſſibly have been derived from the coal mines which abound in this iſland. They lie in a horizontal direction; and being no more than ſix or eight feet below the ſurface, may be worked without digging deep, or draining off the waters. Notwithſtanding the prodigious demand for this coal from New England, from the year 1745 to 1749, theſe mines would probably have been forſaken, had not the ſhips, which were ſent out to the French iſlands, wanted ballaſt. In one of theſe mines, a fire has been kindled which could never yet be extinguiſhed.

The people of Cape Breton did not ſend all their fiſh to Europe. They ſent part of it to the French ſouthern iſlands, on board 20 or 25 ſhips from 70 to 140 tons burden. Beſides the cod, which make at leaſt half their cargo, they exported to the other colonies, timber, planks, thin oak boards, ſalted ſalmon and mackerel, train oil, and ſea-coal. Theſe were paid for, ſome in ſugar and coffee, but chiefly in rum and molaſſes. The

iſland could not conſume all theſe commodities. Canada took off but a ſmall part of the overplus; it was chiefly bought by the people of New England, who gave in exchange, fruits, vegetables, wood, bricks, and cattle. This trade of exchange was allowed, but a ſmuggling trade was added to it, carried on in flour and ſalt fiſh.

In 1743, while this iſland belonged to the French, they caught 1,149,000 quintals of dry fiſh, and 3,500,000 do. of mud-fiſh, the value of both which, including 3,116½ tons of train oil, drawn from the blubber, amounted to £926,577: 10. ſterling, according to the prime coſt of the fiſh at Newfoundland. The whole value of this trade, annually, at that period, amounted to a million ſterling. No leſs than 564 ſhips, beſides ſhallops, and 27,000 ſeamen, were employed in this trade. Charlevoix, in his Hiſtory of France, ſays, "This fiſhery is a more valuable ſource of wealth and power to France, than even the mines of Peru and Mexico would be."

HISTORY.] Though ſome fiſhermen had long reſorted to this iſland every ſummer, not more than 20 or 30 had ever fixed there. The French, who took poſſeſſion of it in Auguſt 1713, were properly the firſt inhabitants. They changed its name into that of *Iſle Royale*, and fixed upon Fort Dauphin for their principal ſettlement. This harbour was two leagues in circumference. The ſhips came to the very ſhore, and were ſheltered from the winds. Foreſts, affording oak ſufficient to fortify and build a large city, were near at hand; the ground appeared leſs barren than in other parts, and the fiſhery was more plentiful. This harbour might have been rendered impregnable at a trifling expence; but the difficulty of approaching it (a circumſtance that had at firſt made a ſtronger impreſſion than the advantages reſulting from it) occaſioned it to be abandoned, after great labour had been beſtowed upon the undertaking. They then turned their views to Louiſburg, the acceſs to which was eaſier; and convenience was thus preferred to ſecurity: the fortification of Louiſburg, however, was not begun till 1720.

In the year 1714, ſome fiſhermen, who till then had lived in Newfoundland, ſettled in this iſland. It was expected that their number would ſoon have been increaſed by the Acadians, who were at liberty, from the treaties that had been granted them, to remove with all their effects, and even to diſpoſe of their eſtates; but theſe hopes were diſappointed. The Acadians choſe rather to retain their poſſeſſions under the dominion of Britain, than to give them up for any precarious advantage they might derive from their attachment to France. Their place was ſupplied by ſome diſtreſſed adventurers from Europe, who came over from time to time to Cape Breton, and the number of inhabitants gradually increaſed to 4000. They were ſettled at Louiſburg, Fort Dauphin, Port Toulouſe, Neruka, and on all the coaſts where they found a proper beach for drying the cod.

This iſland remained in poſſeſſion of the French till 1745, when it was captured for the crown of Great Britain, by a body of troops from New England, under the command of Lieutenant General William Pepperell. For the authentic particulars of this important, ſingular, and ſucceſsful expedition, ſee "The American Apollo." Part I. Vol. I. containing the publications of the Hiſtorical Society, in Boſton. Alſo Encyclopedia Britannica, article Breton.

NOVA

NOVA SCOTIA.

Comprehending the Provinces of NEW BRUNSWICK *and* NOVA SCOTIA.

BOUNDARIES AND EXTENT.

Miles.		*Degrees.*
Length 400 Breadth 300	between	43 30 and 49 north latitude. 60 and 67 east longitude from London. 8 and 15 east longitude from Philadelphia.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED on the north, by the River St. Lawrence; east, by the Gulf of St. Lawrence, (which washes its coast 110 leagues in extent, from the Gut of Canso, at its entrance into the gulf, to Cape Rozier, which forms the fourth part of the River St. Lawrence) and by the Gut of Canso, which divides it from Cape Breton; south, it is washed by the Atlantic Ocean, having a sea coast of 90 leagues, from Cape Canso, east, to Cape Sables, west, which forms one part of the entrance into the Bay of Fundy, which also forms a part of its southern boundary; west, by a part of Lower Canada, and the District of Maine.

The tract of country within these limits, known by the name of Nova Scotia, or New Scotland, was, in 1784, divided into two provinces, viz. New Brunswick on the north-west, and Nova Scotia on the south-east. The former comprehends that part of the old province of Nova Scotia, which lies to the northward and westward of a line drawn from the mouth of the River St. Croix, through the center of the Bay of Fundy to Bay Verte, and thence into the Gulf of St. Lawrence, including all lands within 6 leagues of the coast. The rest is the province of Nova Scotia, to which is annexed, the island of St. John's, which lies north of it, in the Gulf of St. Lawrence.

DIVISIONS.] In 1783, were the following counties in Nova Scotia, viz.

Counties.	*Townships.*	*By whom settled.*	*Rivers.*	
HANTS, on the river Avon.	Windsor Falmouth Newport		Avon or Pigiguit St. Croix Kenetcoot Cocmiguen Cacaguet Cobeguit	All emptying into the Avon, and except the last navigable. Navig. 40 m. for vess. of 60 tons.
HALIFAX. Eastern part of Nova Scotia.	Halifax London Der. Truro Onslow Colchester Lawrence Southampton Canso Tinmouth	Irish & Scotch New England	Shebbenaccadie. Pitcoudiac Memremcoot	Boatable.

Counties.	*Townſhips.*	*By whom ſettled.*	*Rivers.*
KINGS, on the Baſon of Miner.	Cornwallis		Percau; ſmall Habitant, navig. for veſſ. of 40 tons a ſmall diſtance. Canaid, nav. for veſſ. of 160 tons 3 or 4 miles.
	Horton		Cornwallis, navig. for veſſ. of 100 tons 5 m. for v. of 50 tons 10 m. Salmon river.*
ANNAPOLIS, on Annapolis river.	Wilmot	ſett. from Ire. and New Eng.	Annapolis, navigable for ſhips of any burthen 10 miles—of 100 tons 15 miles; tide flows 30 miles, paſſable in boats to within 20 miles of Horton.
	Granville	do. a fine townſhip 30 miles in leng. on the Bay of Fundy.	
	Annapolis		
	Clare	40 families of Acadians.	
	Moncton	Do.	
CUMBERLAND, at the head of Bay of Fundy.	Cumberland		An Lac, Marequeſh, La Planche — which are nav. 3 or 4 miles for veſſels of 5 tons.
	Sackville,	ſettled from N. Eng. & Yorkſh.	Napan, Macon — ſhoal rivers.
	Amherſt, Hillſboro' Hopewell	ſettled from N. of Ire. N. Eng. and Yorkſhire	Memrem, Petcoudia, Chepodie — navigable 4 or 5 miles.
			Herbert — navigable by boats to its head 12 miles.
SUNBURY, on the river St. John's, north ſhore of Bay of Fundy.	Conway Gage Town Burton Sunbury St. Ann's Willmot Newton Maugerville	ſettled from Maſſachuſetts, Connecticut, &c.	St. John's, deſcribed under the head of rivers.
QUEENS, ſouth ſide of Bay of Fundy.	Argyle	Scots & Acad.	None
	Yarmouth	New England.	
	Barrington (Sable Iſl.)	Quakers from Nantucket.	
	Liverpool	New England.	
LUNENBURG, on Mahone Bay.	New Dublin	Iriſh formerly, now Germans.	None.
	Lunenburg	Germans	
	Cheſter	New England.	
	Blandford	3 families only.	

* There are ſettlements of Acadians on all theſe rivers, whoſe banks are good land.

RIVERS.

RIVERS, BAYS, LAKES, and CAPES.] Moſt of the rivers which water this country have already been mentioned. The rivers Riſgonche and Nipiſiguit, run from weſt to eaſt into Chaleur and Nipiſiguit Bays, which communicate with the Gulph of St. Lawrence. The river St. Croix, (which is the true St. Croix, is yet undetermined) empties into Paſſamaquoddy Bay, and forms a part of the boundary between New Brunſwick and Main. St. John's is the largeſt river in the province. It empties into the north ſide of the bay of Fundy, and is navigable for veſſels of 50 tons, 60 miles, and for boats upwards of 200 miles. This is a common rout to Quebec. The banks of this river, enriched by the annual freſhets, are excellent land. About 30 miles from the mouth of this river commences a fine level country, covered with large trees of timber of various kinds. Maſts, from 20 to 30 inches in diameter, have been cut on this tract. The tide flows, in this river, 80 or 90 miles. It furniſhes the inhabitants with ſalmon, baſs, and ſturgeon. Near fort Howe, the river ſuddenly narrows, and occaſions a fall at certain times of tide, like that at London Bridge.

The coaſt of theſe provinces is indented with numerous bays, and commodious harbours. The principal, as you deſcend ſoutherly from the mouth of St. Lawrence river, are Gaſpee, Chaleur, Verte, which is ſeparated from the bay of Fundy by a narrow iſthmus of about 18 miles wide; cape and harbour of Canſo, 40 leagues eaſtward of Halifax. Chedabucto Bay is about 10 leagues N. W. of Canſo. Chebucto Bay, on which ſtands the town of Halifax. In the bay of Fundy, which extends 50 leagues into the country, the ebb and flow of the tide is from 45 to 60 feet. Chenigto Bay is at the head of Fundy Bay. Paſſamaquoddy Bay borders on the Diſtrict of Main, and receives the waters of St. Croix river. At the entrance of this bay is an iſland, granted to ſeveral gentlemen in Liverpool, in Lancaſhire, who named it Campobello. At a very conſiderable expence, they attempted to form a ſettlement here, but failed. On ſeveral other iſlands in this bay there are ſettlements made by people from Maſſachuſetts. Among the lakes in theſe provinces, which are very numerous, and as yet without names, is Grand Lake, in the province of New Brunſwick, near St. John's river, about 30 miles long and 8 or 10 broad, and in ſome places 40 fathoms deep.

The principal capes are Cape Canſo, on the weſt ſide of the entrance into Chedabucto Bay, and Cape Sables, on the eaſt ſide of the entrance into the bay of Fundy.

PRINCIPAL TOWNS.] Halifax is the capital of the province of Nova Scotia. It ſtands on Chebucto Bay, commodiouſly ſituated for the fiſhery, and has a communication with other parts of this province and New Brunſwick, by land and water carriage. It has a good harbour, where a ſmall ſquadron of ſhips of war lies during the winter, and in the ſummer protects the fiſhery. The town has an entrenchment, and is ſtrengthened with forts of timber. It is ſaid to contain 15 or 16,000 inhabitants.

Shelburne (Nova Scotia) on Port Roſeway, near Cape Sables, was ſuppoſed, in 1783, to 600 families. Since that time it has become leſs populous. Guyſborough, (Nova Scotia) formerly called Mancheſter, ſituated on Chedabucto Bay, about 10 leagues N. W. of Cape Canſo, contained, in 1783, about 250 families. Rawdon (Nova Scotia) 40 miles from Halifax, has about 60 houſes. Annapolis (Nova Scotia) on the eaſt ſide of Fundy Bay, has one of the fineſt harbours in the world. In other reſpects it is a poor, inconſiderable place.

Fredricktown, about 90 miles up St. John's River, is the capital of the province of New Brunſwick.

CLIMATE,

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCTIONS.] During a great part of the year, the atmoſphere is clouded with thick fog, which renders it unhealthy for the inhabitants; and four or five months it is intenſely cold. A great part of this country lies in foreſt, and the ſoil, in many parts, is thin and barren. On the banks of the rivers, however, and ſome other parts, the ſoil is very good, producing large crops of Engliſh graſs, hemp, and flax: many of the bays, and ſalt water rivers, and ſome parts of the ſea coaſt, are bordered with fine tracts of ſalt marſh. The inhabitants do not raiſe proviſions enough for home conſumption,

FORTS.] Theſe are Fort Edward at Windſor, capable of containing 200 men; Annapolis, in its preſent ſtate, 100; Cumberland, 300; Fort Howe, on St. John's River, 100; beſides which there are barracks, incloſed in a ſtockade at Cornwallis, for about 50 men.

INDIANS.] Theſe are the Micmacks, and the tribe called the Marechites. The former inhabit the eaſtern ſhore, between Halifax and Cape Breton; between Cumberland county and the north-eaſt coaſt of the province, towards Chaleur Bay; about the heads of the rivers which run through the counties of Hants and King's County; and between Cape Sable and Annapolis Royal. This tribe is ſuppoſed to have about 300 fighting men. The Marechites inhabit the river St. John, and around Paſſamaquoddy Bay; are eſtimated at 140 fighting men; they are much ſuperior in all reſpects to the Micmacks.

ANIMALS.] The ſame as in the United States, though much leſs numerous.

TRADE.] The exports from Great Britain to this country conſiſt chiefly of linen and woollen cloths, and other neceſſaries for wear, of fiſhing tackle, and rigging for ſhips. The amount of exports, at an average of three years, before the new ſettlements, was about 26,500l. The only articles obtained in exchange are, timber and the produce of the fiſhery, which, at a like average, amounted to 38,000l. But from the late increaſe of inhabitants, it is ſuppoſed that they will now erect ſaw mills, and endeavour to ſupply the Weſt India iſlands with lumber of every kind, as well as the produce of the fiſhery, which will be a profitable article to both countries. The whole population of Nova Scotia and the iſlands adjoining, is eſtimated at 50,000. This eſtimate it is ſuppoſed is conſiderably too large. Recent accounts of theſe ſettlements repreſent them as in a declining ſtate, having great numbers of the houſes built in the new towns uninhabited, and conſiderably reduced in value.

HISTORY.] Notwithſtanding the forbidding appearance of this country, it was here that ſome of the firſt European ſettlements were made. The firſt grant of lands in it was given by James I. to his ſecretary, Sir William Alexander, from whom it had the name of Nova Scotia, or New Scotland. Since then it has frequently changed hands, from one private proprietor to another, and from the French to the Engliſh nation backward and forward. It was not confirmed to the Engliſh, till the peace of Utrecht, and their deſign in acquiring it does not ſeem to have ariſen ſo much from any proſpect of direct profit to be obtained by it, as from an apprehenſion that the French, by poſſeſſing this province, might have had it in their power to annoy the other Britiſh ſettlements. Upon this principle, 3000 families were tranſported in 1749, at the charge of the government, into this country, who built and ſettled the town of Halifax.

ISLAND OF ST. JOHN.

THIS iſland lies in the gulf of St. Lawrence, near the northern coaſt of the province of Nova Scotia, and is about 60 miles long, and 30 or 40 broad. It has ſeveral fine rivers, a rich ſoil, and is pleaſantly ſituated. Charlotte-town is its principal town, and is the reſidence of the lieutenant-governor, who is the chief officer on the iſland. The number of inhabitants are eſtimated at about 5000. Upon the reduction of Cape Breton, in 1745, the inhabitants of this iſland, amounting to abouf 4000, ſubmitted quietly to the Britiſh arms. While the French poſſeſſed this iſland, they improved it to ſo much advantage, that it was called the granary of Canada, which it furniſhed with great plenty of corn, as well as beef and pork. It is attached to the province of Nova Scotia.

NEWFOUNDLAND ISLAND.

NEWFOUNDLAND is ſituated to the eaſt of the gulf of St. Lawrence, between 46 and 52 degrees of north latitude, and between 53 and 59 degrees weſt long. ſeparated from Labrador, or New Britain, by the ſtraits of Belleiſle; and from Canada, by the bay of St. Lawrence; being 550 miles long and 200 broad. The coaſts are extremely ſubject to fogs, attended with almoſt continual ſtorms of ſnow and ſleet, the ſky being uſually overcaſt. From the ſoil of this iſland the Britiſh reap no great advantage, for the cold is long continued and ſevere; and the ſummer heat, though violent, warms it not enough to produce any thing valuable; for the ſoil, at leaſt in thoſe parts of the iſland which have been explored, is rocky and barren. However, it is watered by ſeveral good rivers, and has many large and good harbours. This iſland, whenever the continent ſhall come to fail of timber, convenient to navigation (which on the ſea coaſt perhaps will be at no very remote period,) it is ſaid, will afford a large ſupply for maſts, yards, and all ſorts of lumber for the Weſt India trade. But what at preſent it is chiefly valuable for, is the great fiſhery of cod carried on upon thoſe ſhoals, which are called the Banks of Newfoundland. Great Britain and North America, at the loweſt computation, annually employ 3000 ſail of ſmall craft in this fiſhery; on board of which, and on ſhore to cure and pack the fiſh, are upwards of 100,000 hands; ſo that this fiſhery is not only a very valuable branch of trade to the merchant, but a ſource of livelihood to ſo many thouſands of poor people, and a moſt excellent nurſery to the royal navy. This fiſhery is computed to increaſe the national ſtock 300,000l. a year in gold and ſilver, remitted for the cod ſold in the North, in Spain, Portugal, Italy, and the Levant. The plenty of cod, both on the great bank and the leſſer ones, which lie to the eaſt and ſouth-eaſt of this iſland, is inconceivable; and not only cod, but ſeveral other ſpecies of fiſh, are caught there in abundance; all of which are nearly in an equal plenty along the ſhores of Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, New England, and the iſle of Cape Breton; and very profitable fiſheries are carried on upon all their coaſts.

This iſland, after various diſputes about the property, was entirely ceded to England by the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713; but the French were left at liberty to dry their nets

on the northern ſhores of the iſland; and by the treaty of 1763, they were permitted to fiſh in the gulf of St. Lawrence, but with this limitation, that they ſhould not approach within three leagues of any of the coaſts belonging to England. The ſmall iſlands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, ſituated to the ſouthward of Newfoundland, were alſo ceded to the French, who ſtipulated to erect no fortifications on theſe iſlands, nor to keep more than 50 ſoldiers to enforce the police. By the laſt treaty of peace, the French are to enjoy the fiſheries on the north and on the weſt coaſts of the iſland; and the inhabitants of the United States are allowed the ſame privileges in fiſhing as before their independence. The chief towns in Newfoundland are, Placentia, Bonaviſta, and St. John's: but not above 1000 families remain here in winter. A ſmall ſquadron of men of war are ſent out every ſpring to protect the fiſheries and inhabitants, the admiral of which, for the time being, is governor of the iſland, beſides whom there are two lieutenant governors, one at Placentia, and the other at St. John's.

THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		*Degrees.*
Length 1250	between	31° and 46° North latitude.
Breadth 1040		8° E. and 24° W. longitude from Philadelphia.
		64° and 96° W. longitude from London.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED north and eaſt by Britiſh America, or the provinces of Upper and Lower Canada, and New Brunſwick; ſouth-eaſt, by the Atlantic Ocean; ſouth, by Eaſt and Weſt Florida; weſt, by the river Miſſiſſippi.

In the treaty of peace, concluded in 1783, the limits of the American United States are more particularly defined in the words following: "And that all diſputes which might ariſe in future on the ſubject of the boundaries of the ſaid United States may be prevented, it is hereby agreed and declared, that the following are and ſhall be their boundaries, viz. From the north-weſt angle of Nova Scotia, viz. that angle which is formed by a line drawn due north from the ſource of St. Croix River to the Highlands, along the ſaid Highlands, which divide thoſe rivers that empty themſelves into the river St. Lawrence, from thoſe which fall into the Atlantic Ocean, to the north-weſternmoſt head of Connecticut river; thence down along the middle of that river to the forty-fifth degree of north latitude; from thence by a line due weſt on ſaid latitude, until it ſtrikes the river Iroquois or Cataraqui; thence along the middle of the ſaid river into Lake Ontario; through the middle of ſaid lake, until it ſtrikes the communication by water between that lake and Lake Erie; thence along the middle of ſaid communication into Lake Erie, through the middle of ſaid lake, until it arrives at the water communication between that lake and Lake Huron; thence through the middle of ſaid lake to the water communication between that lake and Lake Superior; thence through Lake Superior, northward of the Iſles Royal and Phillipeaux, to the Long Lake; thence through the middle of ſaid Long Lake, and the water communication between it and the Lake of the Woods, to the ſaid Lake of the Woods; thence thro' the ſaid lake to the moſt north-weſtern point thereof, and from thence, on a due weſt

courſe, to the River Miſſiſſippi; thence by a line to be drawn along the middle of ſaid River Miſſiſſippi, until it ſhall interſect the northernmoſt part of the thirty-firſt degree of north latitude.

"South, by a line to be drawn due eaſt from the determination of the line laſt-mentioned, in the latitude of thirty-one degrees north of the equator, to the middle of the River Apalachichola, or Catahouche; thence along the middle thereof to its junction with the Flint River; thence ſtrait to the head of St. Mary's River; and thence down along the middle of St. Mary's River to the Atlantic Ocean.

"Eaſt, by a line to be drawn along the middle of the River St. Croix, from its mouth, in the Bay of Fundy, to its ſource, and from its ſource directly north, to the aforeſaid Highlands, which divide the rivers that fall into the Atlantic Ocean, from thoſe which fall into the River St. Lawrence; comprehending all iſlands within twenty leagues of any part of the ſhores of the United States, and lying between lines to be drawn due eaſt from the points where the aforeſaid boundaries between Nova Scotia on the one part, and Eaſt Florida on the other, ſhall reſpectively touch the Bay of Fundy and the Atlantic Ocean, excepting ſuch iſlands as now are, or heretofore have been, within the limits of the ſaid province of Nova Scotia."

The territory of the United States, according to Mr. Hutchins, contains, by computation, a million of ſquare miles, in which are

	640,000,000 acres
Deduct for water	51,000,000
Acres of land in the United States	589,000,000

That part of the United States comprehended between the weſt boundary line of Pennſylvania, on the eaſt; the boundary line between Great Britain and the United States, extending from the River St. Croix to the north-weſt extremity of the Lake of the Woods, on the north; the River Miſſiſſippi, to the mouth of the Ohio, on the weſt; and the River Ohio on the ſouth, to the aforementioned bounds of Pennſylvania, contains, by computation, about 411,000 ſquare miles, in which are

	263,040,000 acres.
Deduct for water	43,040,000
To be diſpoſed of by order of Congreſs, when purchaſed of the Indians -	220,000,000

The whole of this immenſe extent of unappropriated weſtern territory, containing, as above ſtated, 220,000,000 of acres, and ſeveral large tracts ſouth of the Ohio,* have been, by the ceſſion of ſome of the original thirteen ſtates, and by the treaty of peace, transferred to the federal government, and are pledged as a fund for ſinking the debt of the United States. Of this territory the Indians now poſſeſs a very large proportion. Mr. Jefferſon, in his report to congreſs, Nov. 8, 1791, deſcribes the boundary line between us and the Indians, as follows: "Beginning at the mouth of the Cayahoga (which falls into the ſouthernmoſt part of Lake Erie) and running up the river to the portage, between that and the Tuſcaroro (or N. E.) branch of the Muſkingum; then down the ſaid branch to the forks, at the croſſing place above Fort Lawrence; then weſtwardly, towards the portage of the Great Miami, to the main branch of that river; then down the Miami, to the fork of that river, next below the

* Ceded by North Carolina, South Carolina and Georgia, with certain reſervations for the Indians and other purpoſes, as will be mentioned hereafter.

old

old fort, which was taken by the French in 1752; thence due weſt to the river De la Panſe (a branch of the Wabaſh) and down that river to the Wabaſh. So far the line is preciſely determined, and cleared of the claims of the Indians. The tract comprehending the whole country within the above deſcribed line, the Wabaſh, the Ohio, and the weſtern limits of Pennſylvania, contains about 55,000 ſquare miles. How far on the weſtern ſide of the Wabaſh, the ſouthern boundary of the Indians has been defined, we know not. It is only underſtood, in general, that their title to the lower country, between that river and the Illinois, was formerly extinguiſhed by the French, while in their poſſeſſion.

Eſtimate of the number of acres of Water, north and weſtward of the River Ohio, within the territory of the United States.

	Acres.
In Lake Superior	21,952,780
Lake of the Woods	1,133,800
Lake Rain, &c.	165,200
Red Lake	551,000
Lake Michigan	10,368,000
Bay Puan	1,216,000
Lake Huron	5,009,920
Lake St. Clair	89,500
Lake Erie, weſtern part	2,252,800
Sundry ſmall lakes and rivers	301,000
	43,040,000

Eſtimate of the number of acres of Water within the Thirteen United States.

In the Lakes, &c. as above mentioned		43,040,000
In Lake Erie, weſtward of the line extended from the north-weſt corner of Pennſylvania, due north to the boundary between the Britiſh territory and the United States	410,000	
In Lake Ontario	2,390,000	
Lake Champlain	500,000	
Cheſapeek Bay	1,700,000	
Albermarle Bay	330,000	
Delaware Bay	630,000	
All the rivers within the thirteen States, including the Ohio	2,000,000	
		7,960,000
Total		51,000,000

LAKES.] It may in truth be ſaid, that no part of the world is ſo well watered with ſprings, rivulets, rivers, and lakes, as the territory of the United States. By means of theſe various ſtreams and collections of water, the whole country is chequered into iſlands and peninſulas. The United States, and indeed all parts of North America, ſeem to have been formed by nature for the moſt intimate union. The facilities of navigation

navigation render the communication between the ports of Georgia and New Hampſhire far more expeditious and practicable, than between thoſe of Provence and Picardy, in France; Cornwall and Caithneſs, in Great Britain; or Gallicia and Catalonia, in Spain. The canals propoſed between Suſquehannah and Delaware, between Paſquetank and Elizabeth rivers, in Virginia, and between the Schuylkill and Suſquehannah, will open a communication from the Carolinas to the weſtern counties of Pennſylvania and New York. The improvements of the Potomak will give a paſſage from the ſouthern ſtates to the weſtern parts of Virginia, Maryland, Pennſylvania, and even to the lakes. From Detroit to Alexandria, on the Potomak, ſix hundred and ſeven miles, are but two carrying places, which together do not exceed the diſtance of forty miles. The canals of Delaware and Cheſapeak will open the communication from South Carolina to New Jerſey, Delaware, the moſt populous parts of Pennſylvania, and the midland counties of New York. Were theſe and the propoſed canal between Aſhley and Cooper rivers in South Carolina, the canals in the northern parts of the ſtate of New York, and thoſe of Maſſachuſetts and New Hampſhire all opened, North America would thereby be converted into a cluſter of large and fertile iſlands, communicating with each other with eaſe and little expence, and in many inſtances without the uncertainty or danger of the ſeas.

There is nothing in other parts of the globe, which reſembles the prodigious chain of lakes in this part of the world. They may properly be termed inland ſeas of freſh water: and even thoſe of the ſecond or third claſs in magnitude are of larger circuit than the greateſt lake in the eaſtern continent. Some of the moſt northern lakes belonging to the United States, have never been ſurveyed, or even viſited by the white people; of courſe we have no deſcription of them which can be relied on as accurate. Others have been partially ſurveyed, and their relative ſituation determined. The beſt account of them which we have been able to procure is as follows:

The Lake of the Woods, the moſt northern in the United States, is ſo called from the large quantities of wood growing on its banks; ſuch as oaks, pines, firs, ſpruce, &c. This lake lies nearly eaſt of the ſouth end of Lake Winnepeek, and is ſuppoſed to be the ſource or conductor of one branch of the river Bourbon, if there be ſuch a river. Its length from eaſt to weſt is ſaid to be about ſeventy miles, and in ſome places it is forty miles wide. The Killiſtinoe Indians encamp on its borders to fiſh and hunt. This lake is the communication between the Lakes Winnepeek and Bourbon, and Lake Superior.

Rainy, or Long Lake, lies eaſt of the Lake of the Woods, and is ſaid to be nearly an hundred miles long, and in no part more than twenty miles wide.

Eaſtward of this lake lie ſeveral ſmall ones, which extend in a ſtring to the great carrying place, and thence into Lake Superior. Between theſe little lakes are ſeveral carrying places, which render the trade to the north-weſt difficult, and exceedingly tedious, as it takes two years to make one voyage from Michillimakkinak to theſe parts.

Lake Superior, formerly termed the Upper Lake, from its northern ſituation, is ſo called from its magnitude, it being the largeſt on the continent. It may juſtly be termed the Caſpian of America, and is ſuppoſed to be the largeſt body of freſh water on the globe. According to the French charts, it is 1500 miles in circumference. A great part of the coaſt is bounded by rocks and uneven ground. The water is pure and tranſparent, and appears generally throughout the lake, to lie upon a bed of huge rocks. It has been remarked, in regard to the waters of this lake, with how much truth I pretend not to ſay, that although their ſurface, during the heat of the ſummer,

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is impregnated with no ſmall degree of warmth, yet on letting down a cup to the depth of about a fathom, the water drawn from thence is cool and refreſhing.

The ſituation of this lake, from the moſt accurate obſervations which have come to our knowledge, lies between forty-ſix and fifty degrees of north latitude, and between nine and eighteen degrees of weſt longitude from the meridian of Philadelphia.

There are many iſlands in this lake, two of them have each land enough, if proper for cultivation, to form a conſiderable province; eſpecially Iſle Royal, which is not leſs than an hundred miles long, and in many places forty broad. The natives ſuppoſe theſe iſlands are the reſidence of the Great Spirit.

Two large rivers empty themſelves into this lake, on the north and north-eaſt ſide; one is called the Nipegon, which leads to a tribe of the Chipeways, who inhabit a lake of the ſame name, and the other is the Michipicooton river, the ſource of which is towards James Bay, from whence there is ſaid to be but a ſhort portage to another river, which empties itſelf into that bay.

Not far from the Nipegon is a ſmall river, that, juſt before it enters the lake, has a perpendicular fall from the top of a mountain, of more than a hundred feet. It is very narrow, and appears at a diſtance like a white garter ſuſpended in the air. There are upwards of thirty other rivers, which empty into this lake, ſome of which are of conſiderable ſize. On the ſouth ſide of it is a remarkable point or cape of about ſixty miles in length, called Point Chegomegan. About an hundred miles weſt of this cape, a conſiderable river falls into the lake, the head of which is compoſed of a great aſſemblage of ſmall ſtreams. This river is remarkable for the abundance of virgin copper that is found on and near its banks. Many ſmall iſlands, particularly on the eaſtern ſhores, abound with copper ore lying in beds, with the appearance of copperas. This metal might be eaſily made a very advantageous article of commerce. This lake abounds with fiſh, particularly trout and ſturgeon; the former weigh from twelve to fifty pounds, and are caught almoſt any ſeaſon of the year in great plenty. Storms affect this lake as much as they do the Atlantic Ocean; the waves run as high, and the navigation is equally dangerous. It diſcharges its waters from the ſouth-eaſt corner, through the Straits of St. Marie, which are about forty miles long. Near the upper end of theſe ſtraits is a rapid, which, though it is impoſſible for canoes to aſcend, yet, when conducted by careful pilots, may be deſcended without danger.

Though Lake Superior is ſupplied by near forty rivers, many of which are large, yet it does not appear that one tenth part of the waters which are conveyed into it by theſe rivers, is diſcharged by the above-mentioned ſtrait. Such a ſuperabundance of water can be diſpoſed of only by evaporation.* The entrance into this lake from the

* That ſuch a ſuperabundance of water ſhould be diſpoſed of by evaporation is no ſingular circumſtance. "There are ſome ſeas" ſays an ingenious correſpondent, who has not obliged me with his name, "in which there is a pretty juſt balance between the waters received from rivers, brooks, &c. and the waſte by evaporation. Of this the Caſpian Sea, in Aſia, affords an inſtance; which, though it receives ſeveral large rivers, has no outlet. There are others, (to ſpeak in borrowed language) whoſe expence exceeds their income; and theſe would ſoon become bankrupt, were it not for the ſupplies which they conſtantly receive from larger collections of water, with which they are connected; ſuch are the Black and Mediterranean ſeas; into the former of which there is a conſtant current from the Mediterranean, through the Boſphorus of Thrace; and into the latter, from the Atlantic, through the Straits of Gibraltar. Others again derive more from their tributary ſtreams than they loſe by evaporation. Theſe give riſe to large rivers. Of this kind are the Dambea in Africa, the Winipiſeogee in New Hampſhire, Lake Superior, and other waters in North America; and the quantity they diſcharge is only the difference between the influx and the evaporation. It is obſerveable,

the Straits of St. Marie affords one of the moſt pleaſing proſpects in the world. On the left may be ſeen many beautiful little iſlands that extend a conſiderable way before you; and on the right, an agreeable ſucceſſion of ſmall points of land that project a little way into the water, and contribute, with the iſlands, to render this delightful baſon calm, and ſecure from thoſe tempeſtuous winds by which the adjoining lake is frequently troubled.

Lake Huron, into which you enter through the Straits of St. Marie, is next in magnitude to Lake Superior. It lies between 43° 30′ and 46° 30′ of north latitude, and between ſix and eight degrees weſt longitude. Its circumference is about one thouſand miles. On the north ſide of this lake is an iſland called Manataulin, ſignifying a place of ſpirits, and is conſidered as ſacred by the Indians. On the ſouth-weſt part of this lake is Saganaum Bay, about eighty miles in length, and about eighteen or twenty miles broad. Thunder Bay, ſo called from the thunder that is frequently heard here, lies about half way between Saganaum Bay and the north-weſt corner of the lake. It is about nine miles acroſs either way. The fiſh are the ſame as in Lake Superior. At the north-weſt corner this lake communicates with Lake Michigan, by the Straits of Michillimakkinak.

The Chipeway Indians live ſcattered around this lake; particularly near Saganaum Bay. On its banks are found amazing quantities of ſand cherries.

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Lake Erie is ſituated between forty-one and forty-three degrees of north latitude, and between 3° 40′ and 8° degrees weſt longitude. It is nearly three hundred miles long from eaſt to weſt, and about forty in its broadeſt part. A point of land projects from the north ſide into this lake, ſeveral miles, towards the ſouth-eaſt, called Long Point. The iſlands and banks towards the weſt end of the lake are ſo infeſted with rattle-ſnakes, as to render it dangerous to land on them. The lake is covered near the banks of the iſlands with the large pond lily, the leaves of which lie on the ſurface of the water ſo thick as to cover it entirely for many acres together; on theſe, in the ſummer ſeaſon, lie myriads of water ſnakes baſking in the ſun. Of the venemous ſerpents which infeſt this lake, the hiſſing ſnake is the moſt remarkable: it is about eighteen inches long, ſmall, and ſpeckled. When you approach it, it flattens itſelf in a moment, and its ſpots, which are of various colours, become viſibly brighter through rage; at the ſame time it blows from its mouth, with great force, a ſubtle wind, ſaid to be of a nauſeous ſmell; and if drawn in with the breath of the unwary traveller, will infallibly bring on a decline, that in a few months muſt prove mortal. No remedy has yet been found to counteract its baneful influence. This lake is of a more dangerous navigation than any of the others, on account of the craggy rocks which project into the water, in a perpendicular direction, many miles together from the northern ſhore, affording no ſhelter from ſtorms.

Preſque Iſle is on the ſouth-eaſt ſhore of this lake, about lat. 42° 10′. From this to Fort Le Beuf, on French Creek, is a portage of 15½ miles. About twenty miles north-eaſt of this is another portage of 9¼ miles, between Chatoughque Creek, emptying into Lake Erie, and Chatoughque Lake, a water of Allegany river.

Fort Erie ſtands on the northern ſhore of Lake Erie, and the weſt bank of Niagara river, in Upper Canada. This lake, at its north-eaſt end, communicates with Lake Ontario by the river Niagara, which runs from ſouth to north, about thirty miles, including its windings, embracing in its courſe Grand Iſland and receiving Tonewanto Creek, from the eaſt. About the middle of this river are the celebrated falls of Niagara, which are reckoned one of the greateſt natural curioſities in the world. The waters which ſupply the river Niagara riſe near two thouſand miles to the north-weſt, and paſſing through the Lakes Superior, Michigan, Huron, and Erie, receiving in their courſe conſtant accumulations, at length, with aſtoniſhing grandeur, ruſh down a ſtupendous precipice of 150 feet perpendicular; and in a ſtrong rapid, that extends to the diſtance of eight or nine miles below, fall near as much more; the river then loſes itſelf in Lake Ontario. The noiſe of theſe falls, in a clear day and fair wind, may be heard between forty and fifty miles. When the water ſtrikes the bottom its ſpray riſes a great height in the air, occaſioning a thick cloud of vapours, in which, when the ſun ſhines, may be ſeen, morning and evening, a beautiful rainbow. Fort Niagara is ſituated on the eaſt ſide of Niagara river, at its entrance into Lake Ontario. This fort, and that at Detroit, contrary to the treaty of 1783, are yet in the poſſeſſion of the Britiſh Government.

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baſs, weighing three or four pounds. It receives the waters of the Cheneſſee river from the ſouth, and of Onondago, at Fort Oſwego, from the ſouth-eaſt, by which it communicates, through Lake Oneida and Wood Creek, with Mohawk river. On the north-eaſt, this lake diſcharges itſelf through the river Cataraqui, (which at Montreal, takes the name of St. Lawrence) into the Atlantic Ocean.

About eight miles from the weſt end of Lake Ontario is a curious cavern, which the Meſſiſaugas Indians call *Manito' ah wigwam*, or *houſe of the Devil.* The mountains which border on the lake, at this place, break off abruptly, and form a precipice of 200 feet perpendicular deſcent; at the bottom of which the cavern begins. The firſt opening is large enough for three men conveniently to walk abreaſt. It continues of this bigneſs for ſeventy yards in a horizontal direction. Then it falls almoſt perpendicularly fifty yards, which may be deſcended by irregular ſteps from one to four feet diſtant from each other. It then continues forty yards horizontally, at the end of which is another perpendicular deſcent, down which there are no ſteps. The cold here is intenſe. In ſpring and autumn, there are, once in about a week, exploſions from this cavern, which ſhake the ground for ſixteen miles round.

Lake Champlain is next in ſize to Lake Ontario, and lies nearly eaſt from it, forming a part of the dividing line between the State of New York and the State of Vermont. It took its name from a French governor, whoſe name was Champlain, who was drowned in it. It was before called Corlaer's Lake. It is about eighty miles in length from north to ſouth, and in its broadeſt part fourteen. It is well ſtored with fiſh, and the land on its borders, and on the banks of its rivers, is good. Crown Point and Ticonderoga are ſituated on the banks of this lake, near the ſouthern part of it.

Lake George lies to the ſouthward of Champlain, and is a moſt clear, beautiful collection of water, thirty-ſix miles long and from one to ſeven miles wide. It emboſoms more than 200 iſlands, ſome ſay 365; very few of which are any thing more than barren rock, covered with heath, and a few cedar, ſpruce, and hemlock trees, and ſhrubs, and abundance of rattle-ſnakes. On each ſide it is ſkirted by prodigious mountains, from which large quantities of red cedar are every year carried to New York for ſhip timber. The lake is full of fiſhes, and ſome of the beſt kind; among which are the black Oſwego baſs and large ſpeckled trouts. The water of this lake is about 100 feet above the level of Lake Champlain. The portage between the two lakes is one mile and a half; but with a ſmall expence might be reduced to ſixty yards; and with one or two locks might be made navigable through for batteaux. This lake, in the French charts, is called Lake St. Sacrament; and it is ſaid that the Roman Catholics, in former times, were at the pains to procure this water for ſacramental uſes in all their churches in Canada: hence probably it derived its name.

Rivers.] The Miſſiſſippi receives the waters of the Ohio and Illinois, and their numerous branches from the eaſt; and of the Miſſouri and other rivers from the weſt. Theſe mighty ſtreams united, are borne down with increaſing majeſty, through vaſt foreſts and meadows, and diſcharged into the Gulf of Mexico. The great length and uncommon depth of this river, ſays Mr. Hutchins, and the exceſſive muddineſs and ſalubrious quality of its waters, after its junction with the Miſſouri, are very ſingular.*

* In a half pint tumbler of this water has been found a ſediment of one inch of impalpable marle-like ſubſtance. It is, notwithſtanding, extremely wholeſome and well taſted, and very cool in the hotteſt ſeaſons of the year; the rowers, who are there employed, drink of it when they are in the freeſt perſpiration, and never receive any bad effects from it. The inhabitants of New Orleans uſe no other water than that of the river, which, by being kept in jars, becomes perfectly clear.

The direction of the channel is ſo crooked, that from New Orleans to the mouth of the Ohio, a diſtance which does not exceed four hundred and ſixty miles in a ſtrait line, is about eight hundred and fifty-ſix by water. It may be ſhortened at leaſt two hundred and fifty miles by cutting acroſs eight or ten necks of land, ſome of which are not thirty yards wide. Charlevoix relates that in the year 1722, at Point Coupee, or Cut Point, the river made a great turn, and ſome Canadians, by deepening the channel of a ſmall brook, diverted the waters of the river into it. The impetuoſity of the ſtream was ſo violent, and the ſoil of ſo rich and looſe a quality, that in a ſhort time the point was entirely cut through, and travellers ſaved fourteen leagues of their voyage. The old bed has no water in it, the times of the periodical overflowings only excepted. The new channel has been ſince ſounded with a line of thirty fathoms, without finding bottom. Several other points, of great extent, have, in like manner, been ſince cut off, and the river diverted into new channels.

In the ſpring floods the Miſſiſſippi is very high, and the current ſo ſtrong that it is with difficulty it can be aſcended; but this diſadvantage is remedied in ſome meaſure by eddies or counter currents, which are generally found in the bends cloſe to the banks of the river, and aſſiſt the aſcending boats. The current at this ſeaſon deſcends at the rate of about five miles an hour. In autumn, when the waters are low, it does not run faſter than two miles, but it is rapid in ſuch parts of the river as have cluſters of iſlands, ſhoals, and ſand banks. The circumference of many of theſe ſhoals being ſeveral miles, the voyage is longer and in ſome parts more dangerous than in the ſpring. The merchandize neceſſary for the commerce of the upper ſettlements on or near the Miſſiſſippi, is conveyed in the ſpring and autumn in batteaux, rowed by eighteen or twenty men, and carrying about forty tons. From New Orleans to the Illinois, the voyage is commonly performed in eight or ten weeks. A prodigious number of iſlands, ſome of which are of great extent, interſperſe that mighty river. Its waters, after overflowing its banks below the river Ibberville on the eaſt, and the river Rouge on the weſt, never return within them again, there being many outlets or ſtreams, by which they are conducted into the bay of Mexico, more eſpecially on the weſt ſide of the Miſſiſſippi, dividing the country into numerous iſlands. Theſe ſingularities diſtinguiſh it from every other known river in the world. Below the Ibberville, the land begins to be very low on both ſides of the river, acroſs the country, and gradually declines as it approaches nearer to the ſea. The iſland of New Orleans, and the lands oppoſite, are to all appearance of no long date; for in digging ever ſo little below the ſurface, you find water and great quantities of trees. The many beeches and breakers, as well as inlets, which have ariſen out of the channel within the laſt half century, at the ſeveral mouths of the river, are convincing proofs that this peninſula was wholly formed in the ſame manner. And it is certain that when La Salle ſailed down the Miſſiſſippi to the ſea, the opening of that river was very different from what it is at preſent.

The nearer you approach to the ſea, this truth becomes more ſtriking. The bars that croſs moſt of theſe ſmall channels, opened by the current, have been multiplied by means of the trees carried down with the ſtreams; one of which, ſtopped by its roots or branches in a ſhallow part, is ſufficient to obſtruct the paſſage of thouſands more, and to fix them at the ſame place. Aſtoniſhing collections of trees are daily ſeen in paſſing between the Balize and the Miſſouri. No human force is ſufficient to remove them, and the mud carried down by the river ſerves to bind and cement them together. They are gradually covered, and every inundation not only extends their length and breadth, but adds another layer to their height. In leſs than ten years time,

canes, ſhrubs, and aquatic timber grow on them, and form points and iſlands, which forcibly ſhift the bed of the river.

Nothing can be aſſerted with certainty, reſpecting the length of this river. Its ſource is not known, but ſuppoſed to be upwards of three thouſand miles from the ſea as the river runs. We only know, that from St. Antony's falls, in lat. 45°, it glides with a pleaſant clear current, and receives many large and very extenſive tributary ſtreams before its junction with the Miſſouri, without greatly increaſing the breadth of the Miſſiſſippi, though they do its depth and rapidity. The muddy waters of the Miſſouri diſcolour the lower part of the river, till it empties into the Bay of Mexico. The Miſſouri is a longer, broader, and deeper river than the Miſſiſſippi, and affords a more extenſive navigation; it is, in fact, the principal river, contributing more to the common ſtream than does the Miſſiſſippi. It has been aſcended by French traders about twelve or thirteen hundred miles, and from the depth of water, and breadth of the river at that diſtance, it appeared to be navigable many miles further.

From the Miſſouri river, to nearly oppoſite the Ohio, the weſtern bank of the Miſſiſſippi, is, ſome few places excepted, higher than the eaſtern. From Mine au fer, to the Ibberville, the eaſtern bank is higher than the weſtern, on which there is not a ſingle diſcernible riſing or eminence, the diſtance of ſeven hundred and fifty miles. From the Ibberville to the ſea, there are no eminences on either ſide, though the eaſtern bank appears rather the higheſt of the two, as far as the Engliſh turn. Thence the banks gradually diminiſh in height to the mouths of the river, where they are but a few feet higher than the common ſurface of the water.

The ſlime which the annual floods of the river Miſſiſſippi leaves on the ſurface of the adjacent ſhores, may be compared with that of the Nile, which depoſits a ſimilar manure, and for many centuries paſt has inſured the fertility of Egypt. When its banks ſhall have been cultivated, as the excellency of its ſoil and temperature of the climate deſerve, its population will equal that of any other part of the world. The trade, wealth, and power of America, may, at ſome future period, depend, and perhaps center upon the Miſſiſſippi. This alſo reſembles the Nile in the number of its mouths, all iſſuing into a ſea that may be compared to the Mediterranean, which is bounded on the north and ſouth by the two continents of Europe and Africa, as the Mexican bay is by North and South America. The ſmaller mouths of this river might be eaſily ſtopped up, by means of thoſe floating trees with which the river, during the floods, is always covered. The whole force of the channel being united, the only opening then left would probably grow deep, and the bar be removed.

Whoever for a moment will caſt his eye over a map of the town of New Orleans, and the immenſe country around it, and view its advantageous ſituation, muſt be convinced that it, or ſome place near it, muſt, in proceſs of time, become one of the greateſt marts in the world.

The falls of St. Anthony, in about latitude 45°, received their name from Father Lewis Hennipin, a French miſſionary, who travelled into theſe parts about the year 1680, and was the firſt European ever ſeen by the natives. The whole river, which is more than 250 yards wide, falls perpendicularly about thirty feet, and forms a moſt pleaſing cataract. The rapids below, in the ſpace of three hundred yards, render the deſcent conſiderably greater; ſo that when viewed at a diſtance, they appear to be much higher than they really are. In the middle of the falls is a ſmall iſland, about forty feet broad, and ſomewhat longer, on which grow a few cragged hemlock and ſpruce trees; and about half way between this iſland and the eaſtern ſhore is a rock, lying at the very edge of the fall, in an oblique poſition, five or ſix feet broad, and

thirty or forty long. These falls are peculiarly situated, as they are approachable without the least obstruction from any intervening hill or precipice, which cannot be said of any other considerable fall, perhaps in the world. The country around is exceedingly beautiful. It is not an uninterrupted plain, where the eye finds no relief, but composed of many gentle ascents, which in the spring and summer are covered with verdure, and interspersed with little groves, that give a pleasing variety to the prospect.

A little distance below the falls is a small island of about an acre and an half, on which grow a great number of oak trees, almost all the branches of which, able to bear the weight, are, in the proper season of the year, loaded with eagle's nests. Their instinctive wisdom has taught them to choose this place, as it is secure, on account of the rapids above, from the attacks of either man or beast.

From the best accounts that can be obtained from the Indians, we learn that the four most capital rivers on the continent of North America, viz. the St. Lawrence, the Mississippi, the River Bourbon, and the Oregon, or the river of the West, have their sources in the same neighbourhood. The waters of thethree former are said to be within thirty miles of each other; the latter is rather farther west.

This shews that these parts are the highest lands in North America; and it is an instance not to be paralleled in the other three quarters of the globe, that four rivers of such magnitude should take their rise together, and each, after running separate courses, discharge their waters into different oceans, at the distance of more than two thousand miles from their sources. For in their passage from this spot to the bay of St. Lawrence, east; to the bay of Mexico, south; to Hudson's Bay, north; and to the bay at the straits of Annian, west; where the river Oregon is supposed to empty, each of them traverses upwards of two thousand miles.

The Ohio is a most beautiful river. Its current gentle, waters clear, and bosom smooth and unbroken by rocks and rapids, a single instance only excepted. It is one quarter of a mile wide at Fort Pitt; five hundred yards at the mouth of the Great Kanhaway; 1200 yards at Louisville; and the rapids, half a mile, in some few places below Louisville: but its general breadth does not exceed 600 yards. In some places its width is not 400, and in one place particularly, far below the rapids, it is less than 300. Its breadth in no one place exceeds 1200 yards, and at its junction with the Mississippi, neither river is more than 900 yards wide.*

Its length, as measured according to its meanders by Capt. Hutchins, is as follows.

From Fort Pitt	Miles.		Miles.
To Log's Town	18 ½	To Hockhocking	16
Big Beaver Creek	10 ¾	Great Kanhaway	82 ½
Little Beaver Creek	13 ½	Guiandot	43 ¾
Yellow Creek	11 ¾	Sandy Creek	14 ½
Two Creeks	21 ¾	Sioto	48 ¾
Long Reach	53 ¾	To Little Miami	126 ¼
End Long Reach	16 ½	Licking Creek	8
Muskingum	26 ½	Great Miami	26 ¾
Little Kanhaway	12 ¼	Big Bones	32 ½

* The alterations in the description of this river were received by the Author from Col. George Morgan of New Jersey, a gentleman of accurate observation, and who has repeatedly passed this river from Pittsburg to its junction with the Mississippi.

To

	Miles.		Miles.
To Kentucky	44 ¼	To Big Cave	42 ¾
Rapids	77 ¼	Shawnee River	52 ½
Low Country	155 ¾	Cherokee River	13
Buffalo River	64 ½	Maſſac	11
Wabaſh	97 ¼	Miſſiſſippi	46
			1188

In common winter and ſpring floods, it affords 30 or 40 feet water to Louiſville, 25 or 30 feet to La Tarte's rapids, forty miles above the mouth of the great Kanhaway, and a ſufficiency at all times for light batteaux and canoes to Fort Pitt. The rapids are in latitude 38° 8′. The inundations of this river begin about the laſt of March, and ſubſide in July, although they frequently happen in other months, ſo that boats which carry 300 barrels of flour, from the Monongahela, or Youhiogany, above Pittſburg, have ſeldom long to wait for water only. During theſe floods a firſt rate man of war may be carried from Louiſville to New Orleans, if the ſudden turns of the river and the ſtrength of its current will admit a ſafe ſteerage; and it is the opinion of Col. Morgan, who has had all the means of information, that a veſſel properly built for the ſea, to draw 12 feet water, when loaded, and carrying from 12 to 1600 barrels of flour, may be more eaſily, cheaply, and ſafely navigated from Pittſburg to the ſea, than thoſe now in uſe; and that this matter only requires one man of capacity and enterprize to aſcertain it. He obſerves, that a veſſel intended to be rigged as a brigantine, ſnow, or ſhip, ſhould be double decked, take her maſts on deck, and be rowed to the Ibberville, below which are no iſlands, or to New Orleans, with 20 men, ſo as to afford reliefs of 10 and 10 in the night.—Such a veſſel, without the uſe of oars, he ſays, would float to New Orleans, from Pittſburg, 20 times in 24 hours. If this be ſo, what agreeable proſpects are preſented to our brethren and fellow citizens in the weſtern country.

The rapids at Louiſville deſcend about 10 feet in a length of a mile and a half. The bed of the river there is a ſolid rock, and is divided by an iſland into two branches, the ſouthern of which is about two hundred yards wide, but impaſſable in dry ſeaſons. The bed of the northern branch is worn into channels by the conſtant courſe of the water, and attrition of the pebble ſtones carried on with that, ſo as to be paſſable for batteaux through the greater part of the year. Yet it is thought that the ſouthern arm may be moſt eaſily opened for conſtant navigation. The riſe of the waters in theſe rapids does not exceed 20 or 25 feet. We have a fort, ſituated at the head of the falls. The ground on the ſouth ſide riſes very gradually.

At Fort Pitt the river Ohio loſes its name, branching into the Monongahela and Allegany.

The Monongahela is four hundred yards wide at its mouth. From thence is twelve or fifteen miles to the mouth of Yohogany, where it is three hundred yards wide. Thence to Redſtone by water is fifty miles, by land thirty. Then to the mouth of Cheat river, by water forty miles, by land twenty-eight, the width continuing at three hundred yards, and the navigation good for boats. Thence the width is about two hundred yards to the weſtern fork, fifty miles higher, and the navigation frequently interrupted by rapids; which, however, with a ſwell of two or three feet, become very paſſable for boats. It then admits light boats, except in dry ſeaſons, ſixty-five miles further, to the head of Tygart's valley, preſenting only ſome ſmall rapids and falls of one or two feet perpendicular, and leſſening in its width to twenty yards. The Weſtern fork is navigable in the winter ten or fifteen miles towards the northern of the Little Kanhaway, and

will admit a good waggon road to it. The Yohogany is the principal branch of this river. It paſſes through the Laurel mountain, about thirty miles from its mouth; is, ſo far, from three hundred to one hundred and fifty yards wide, and the navigation much obſtructed in dry weather by rapids and ſhoals. In its paſſage through the mountain it makes very great falls, admitting no navigation for ten miles, to the Turkey foot. Thence to the Great Croſſing, about twenty miles, it is again navigable, except in dry ſeaſons, and at this place is two hundred yards wide. The ſources of this river are divided from thoſe of the Patomak by the Allegany mountain. From the falls, where it interſects the Laurel mountain, to Fort Cumberland, the head of the navigation on the Patomak, is forty miles of very mountainous road. Will's creek, at the mouth of which was Fort Cumberland, is thirty or forty yards wide, but affords no navigation as yet. Cheat river, another conſiderable branch of the Monongahela, is two hundred yards wide at its mouth, and one hundred yards at the Dunkard's ſettlement, fifty miles higher. It is navigable for boats, except in dry ſeaſons. The boundary between Virginia and Pennſylvania croſſes it about three or four miles above its mouth.

The Allegany river affords navigation at all ſeaſons for light batteaux to Venango, at the mouth of French creek, where it is two hundred yards wide; and it is practiſed even to Le Bœuf, from whence there is a portage of fifteen miles and a half to Preſque Iſle on Lake Erie.

The country watered by the Miſſiſſippi and its eaſtern branches conſtitutes five-eighths of the United States; two of which five-eighths are occupied by the Ohio and its waters: the reſiduary ſtreams, which run into the Gulf of Mexico, the Atlantic, and the St. Lawrence, water the remaining three-eighths.

Before we quit the ſubject of the weſtern waters, we will take a view of their principal connections with the Atlantic. Theſe are four, the Hudſon's river, the Patomak, St. Lawrence, and Miſſiſſippi. Down the laſt will paſs all the heavy commodities. But the navigation through the Gulf of Mexico is ſo dangerous, and that up the Miſſiſſippi ſo difficult and tedious, that it is thought probable that European merchandize will not be conveyed through that channel. It is moſt likely that flour, timber, and other heavy articles will be floated on rafts, which will themſelves be an article for ſale as well as their loading, the navigators returning by land, as at preſent. There will therefore be a competition between the Hudſon, the Patomak, and the St. Lawrence rivers, for the reſidue of the commerce of all the country weſtward of Lake Erie, on the waters of the lakes of the Ohio, and upper parts of Miſſiſſippi. To go to New York, that part of the trade which comes from the lakes or their waters, muſt firſt be brought into Lake Erie. Between Lake Superior and its waters, and Huron, are the rapids of St. Marie, which will permit boats to paſs, but not larger veſſels. Lakes Huron and Michigan afford communication with Lake Erie by veſſels of eight feet draught. That part of the trade which comes from the waters of the Miſſiſſippi, muſt paſs from the mthrough ſome portage into the waters of the lakes. The portage from the Illinois river into a water of Michigan, is of one mile only. From the Wabaſh, Miami, Muſkingum, or Allegany, are portages into the waters of Lake Erie, of from one to fifteen miles. When the commodities are brought into and have paſſed through Lake Erie, there is between that and Ontario an interruption by the falls of Niagara, where the portage is of eight miles; and between Ontario and the Hudſon's river are portages of the falls of Onondago, a little above Oſwego, of a quarter of a mile; from Wood creek to the Mohawks river, two miles; at the little falls of the Mohawks river, half a mile, and from Schenectady to Albany, ſixteen miles. Beſides the increaſe of expence occaſioned by frequent change of carriage, there is an increaſed riſk of pillage produced by committing

merchandize

merchandize to a greater number of hands ſucceſſively. The Patomak offers itſelf under the following circumſtances. For the trade of the lakes and their waters weſtward of Lake Erie, when it ſhall have entered that lake, muſt coaſt along its ſouthern ſhore, on account of the number and excellence of its harbours; the northern, though ſhorteſt, having few harbours, and theſe unſafe. Having reached Cayahoga, to proceed on to New York, it will have eight hundred and twenty-five miles and five portages; whereas it is but four hundred and twenty-five miles to Alexandria, its emporium on the Patomak, if it turns into the Cayahoga, and paſſes through that, Big-beaver, Ohio, Yohogany, (or Monongalia and Cheat) and Patomak, and there are but two portages; the firſt of which, between Cayahoga and Beaver, may be removed by uniting the ſources of theſe waters, which are lakes in the neighbourhood of each other, and in a champaign country; the other, from the waters of Ohio to Patomak, will be from fifteen to forty miles, according to the trouble which ſhall be taken to approach the two navigations. For the trade of the Ohio, or that which ſhall come into it from its own waters or the Miſſiſſippi, it is nearer through the Patomak to Alexandria than New-York, by five hundred and eighty miles, and is interrupted by one portage only. There is another circumſtance of difference too. The lakes themſelves never freeze, but the communications between them freeze, and the Hudſon's river is itſelf ſhut up by the ice three months in the year; whereas the channel to the Cheſapeek leads directly into a warmer climate. The ſouthern parts of it very rarely freeze at all, and whenever the northern do, it is ſo near the ſources of the rivers, that the frequent floods, to which they are there liable, break up the ice immediately, ſo that veſſels may paſs through the whole winter, ſubject only to accidental and ſhort delays. Add to all this, that in caſe of a war with our neighbours of Canada, or the Indians, the rout to New York becomes a frontier through almoſt its whole length, and all commerce through it ceaſes from that moment.—But the channel to New York is already known to practice; whereas, the upper waters of the Ohio and the Patomak, and the great falls of the latter, are yet to be cleared of their fixed obſtructions.

The rout by St. Lawrence is well known to be attended with many advantages, and with ſome diſadvantages. But there is a fifth rout, which the enlightened and enterprizing Pennſylvanians contemplate, which, if effected, will be the eaſieſt, cheapeſt, and ſureſt paſſage from the lakes, and Ohio river, by means of the Suſquehanna, and a canal from thence to Philadelphia. The latter part of this plan, viz. the canal between Suſquehanna and the Schuylkill rivers is now actually in execution. Should they accompliſh their whole ſcheme, and they appear confident of ſucceſs, Philadelphia in all probability will become, in ſome future period, the largeſt city that has ever yet exiſted.

Particular deſcriptions of the other rivers in the United States are reſerved to be given in the geographical account of thoſe ſtates through which they reſpectively flow. One general obſervation reſpecting the rivers will, however, be naturally introduced here, and that is, that the entrance into almoſt all the rivers, inlets, and bays, from New Hampſhire to Georgia, are from ſouth-eaſt to north-weſt.

Bays.] The coaſt of the United States is indented with numerous bays, ſome of which are equal in ſize to any in the known world.—Beginning at the north-eaſterly part of the continent, and proceeding ſouth-weſterly, you firſt find the bay or gulf of St. Lawrence, which receives the waters of the river of the ſame name. Next are Chedabukto and Chebukto Bays, in Nova Scotia, the latter diſtinguiſhed by the loſs of a French fleet in a former war between France and Great Britain. The Bay of Fundy,

Fundy, between Nova Scotia and New Brunſwick, is remarkable for its tides, which riſe to the height of fifty or ſixty feet, and flow ſo rapidly as to overtake animals which feed upon the ſhore. Paſſamaquoddy, Penobſcot, Broad and Caſco Bays, lie along the coaſt of the diſtrict of Maine. Maſſachuſetts Bay ſpreads eaſtward of Boſton, and is comprehended between Cape Ann on the north, and Cape Cod on the ſouth. The points of Boſton Harbour are Nahant and Alderton Points. Paſſing by Narraganſet and other bays in the ſtate of Rhode-Iſland, you enter Long Iſland Sound, between Montauk Point and the Main. This Sound, as it is called, is a kind of inland ſea, from three to twenty-five miles broad, and about one hundred and forty miles long, extending the whole length of the iſland, and dividing it from Connecticut. It communicates with the ocean at both ends of Long Iſland, and affords a very ſafe and convenient inland navigation.

The celebrated ſtrait, called Hell-Gate, is near the weſt end of this ſound, about eight miles eaſtward of New York city, and is remarkable for its whirlpools, which make a tremendous roaring at certain times of tide. Theſe whirlpools are occaſioned by the narrowneſs and crookedneſs of the paſs, and a bed of rocks which extend quite acroſs it; and not by the meeting of the tides from eaſt to weſt, as has been conjectured, becauſe they meet at Frogs' Point, ſeveral miles above. A ſkilful pilot may with ſafety conduct a ſhip of any burden through this ſtrait with the tide, or, at ſtill water, with a fair wind *.

Delaware Bay is ſixty miles long, from the cape to the entrance of the river Delaware at Bombay Hook; and ſo wide in ſome parts, as that a ſhip, in the middle of it, cannot be ſeen from the land. It opens into the Atlantic north-weſt and ſouth-eaſt, between Cape Henlopen on the right, and Cape May on the left. Theſe capes are eighteen or twenty miles apart.

* The following ingenious geological remarks of Dr. Mitchell's, on certain maritime parts of the ſtate of New York, deſerve a place in this connection:

"From the ſurvey of the foſſils in theſe parts of the American coaſt one becomes convinced, that the principal ſhare of them is GRANITICAL, *compoſed of the ſame ſorts of materials with the higheſt Alps, Pyrenees, Caucaſus, and Andes, and like them deſtitute of metals and petrifactions.*

The occurrence of *no* horizontal ſtrata, and the frequency of vertical layers, lead us further to ſuppoſe *that theſe are not ſecondary collections of minerals, but are certainly in a ſtate of primeval arrangement.*

The *Steatites, Amianthus, Shoerl, Feldſpath, Mica, Garnet, Jaſpar, Shiſtus, Aſbeſtos,* aud *Quartz,* muſt all be conſidered as *primitive foſſils, and by no means of an alluvial nature.*

What inference remains now to be drawn from this ſtatement of facts, but that the faſhionable opinion of conſidering theſe maritime parts of our country as flats, hove up from the deeps by the ſea, or brought down from the heights by the rivers, ſtands unſupported by reaſon, and contradicted by experience?

A more probable opinion is, that Long Iſland, and the adjacent continent, were in former days continuous, or only ſeparated by a ſmall river, and that the ſtrait which now divides them, was formed by ſucceſſive inroads of the ſea from the eaſtward and weſtward in the courſe of ages. This conjecture is ſupported by the facts which follow, *to wit:* 1. The foſſil bodies on both ſhores have a near reſemblance. 2. The rocks and iſlands lying between are formed of ſimilar materials. 3. In ſeveral places, particularly at White-Stone and Hell-Gate, the diſtance from land to land is very ſmall. 4. Wherever the ſhore is not compoſed of ſolid rock, there the water continues to make great incroachments, and to cauſe the high banks to tumble down, as is true, not only here, but at Moncton, Newton, and elſewhere, at this very day. 5. The rocky piles in the Sound, called Executions, and Stepping-Stones, and thoſe named Hurtleberry Iſland, Pea Iſland, Heart Iſland, and many more that lie up and down, are ſtrong circumſtances in favour of this opinion; for from ſeveral of them all the earthy matter, as far as the higheſt tides can reach, has long ſince been carried away, and from the reſt, the ſand and gravel continue to be removed by daily attrition; as is true alſo of the Brothers, Ryker's, Blackwell's, and other iſlands. 6. There is a tradition among that race of men, who, previous to the Europeans, poſſeſſed this tract of country, that at ſome diſtant period, in former times, their anceſtors could ſtep from rock to rock, and croſs this arm of the ſea on foot at Hell-Gate."

The Cheſapeek is one of the largeſt bays in the known world. Its entrance is nearly E. N. E. and S. S. W. between Cape Charles, lat. 37° 12′, and Cape Henry, lat. 37°, in Virginia, twelve miles wide, and it extends two hundred and ſeventy miles to the northward, dividing Virginia and Maryland. It is from ſeven to eighteen miles broad, and generally as much as nine fathoms deep; affording many commodious harbours, and a ſafe and eaſy navigation. It receives the waters of the Suſquehannah, Patomak, Rappahannok, York and James rivers, which are all large and navigable.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] The tract of country belonging to the United States is happily variegated with plains and mountains, hills and vallies. Some parts are rocky, particularly New England, the north parts of New York, and New Jerſey, and a broad ſpace, including the ſeveral ridges of the long range of mountains which run ſouth-weſtward through Pennſylvania, Virginia, North Carolina, and part of Georgia, dividing the waters which flow into the Atlantic from thoſe which fall into the Miſſiſſippi. In the parts eaſt of the Allegany mountains, in the ſouthern ſtates, the country for ſeveral hundred miles in length, and ſixty or ſeventy, and ſometimes more, in breadth, is level and entirely free from ſtone. It has been a queſtion agitated by the curious, whether the extenſive tract of low flat country, which fronts the ſeveral ſtates ſouth of New York, and extends back to the hills, has remained in its preſent form and ſituation ever ſince the flood: or whether it has been made by the particles of earth which have been waſhed down from the adjacent mountains, and by the accumulation of ſoil from the decay of vegetable ſubſtances; or by earth waſhed out of the bay of Mexico by the Gulf Stream, and lodged on the coaſt; or by the receſs of the ocean, occaſioned by a change in ſome other parts of the earth. Several phenomena deſerve conſideration in forming an opinion on this queſtion.

1. It is a fact, well known to every perſon of obſervation who has lived in, or travelled through, the ſouthern ſtates, that marine ſhells and other ſubſtances which are peculiar to the ſea ſhore, are almoſt invariably found by digging eighteen or twenty feet below the ſurface of the earth. A gentleman of veracity told me, that in ſinking a well many miles from the ſea, he found, at the depth of twenty feet, every appearance of a ſalt marſh, that is, marſh graſs, marſh mud, and brackiſh water. In all this flat country, until you come to the hilly land, wherever you dig a well, you find the water, at a certain depth, freſh and tolerable good; but if you exceed that depth two or three feet, you come to a ſaltiſh or brackiſh water that is ſcarcely drinkable, and the earth dug up reſembles, in appearance and ſmell, that which is dug up on the edges of the ſalt marſhes.

2. On and near the margin of the rivers are frequently found ſand hills, which appear to have been drifted into ridges by the force of water. At the bottom of ſome of the banks in the rivers, fifteen or twenty feet below the ſurface of the earth, are waſhed out from the ſolid ground, logs, branches, and leaves of trees; and the whole bank, from bottom to top, appears ſtreaked with layers of logs, leaves, and ſand. Theſe appearances are ſeen far up the rivers, from eighty to an hundred miles from the ſea, where, when the rivers are low, the banks are from fifteen to twenty feet high. As you proceed down the rivers towards the ſea, the banks decreaſe in height, but ſtill are formed of layers of ſand, leaves, and logs, ſome of which are entirely ſound, and appear to have been ſuddenly covered to a conſiderable depth.

3. It has been obſerved, that the rivers in the ſouthern ſtates frequently vary their channels; that the ſwamps and low grounds are conſtantly filling up, and that the land, in many places, annually infringes upon the ocean. It is an authenticated fact, that

that no longer ago than 1771, at Cape Lookout, on the coaſt of North Carolina, in about latitude 34° 50′, there was an excellent harbour, capacious enough to receive an hundred ſail of ſhipping at a time, in a good depth of water: it is now entirely filled up, and is ſolid ground. Inſtances of this kind are frequent along the coaſt.

It is obſervable, likewiſe, that there is a gradual deſcent of about eight hundred feet, by meaſurement, from the foot of the mountains to the ſea board. This deſcent continues, as is demonſtrated by ſoundings, far into the ſea.

4. It is worthy of obſervation, that the ſoil on the banks of the rivers is proportionably coarſe or fine according to its diſtance from the mountains. When you firſt leave the mountains, and for a conſiderable diſtance, it is obſervable, that the ſoil is coarſe, with a large mixture of ſand and ſhining heavy particles. As you proceed toward the ſea, the ſoil is leſs coarſe, and ſo on; in proportion as you advance, the ſoil is finer and finer, until, finally, is depoſited a ſoil ſo fine, that it conſolidates into perfect clay; but a clay of a peculiar quality, for a great part of it has intermixed with it reddiſh ſtreaks and veins, like a ſpecies of *ochre*, brought probably from the *red lands* which lie up towards the mountains. This clay, when dug up and expoſed to the weather, will diſſolve into a fine mould, without the leaſt mixture of ſand or any gritty ſubſtance whatever. Now we know that running waters, when turbid, will depoſit, firſt, the coarſeſt and heavieſt particles, mediately, thoſe of the ſeveral intermediate degrees of fineneſs, and ultimately, thoſe which are the moſt light and ſubtle; and ſuch in fact is the general quality of the ſoil on the banks of the ſouthern rivers.

5. It is a well-known fact, that on the banks of Savannah river, about ninety miles from the ſea in a direct line, and one hundred and fifty or two hundred, as the river runs, there is a very remarkable collection of oyſter ſhells of an uncommon ſize. They run in a north-eaſt and ſouth-weſt direction, nearly parallel to the ſea coaſt, in three diſtinct ridges, which together occupy a ſpace of ſeven miles in breadth. The ridges commence at Savannah river, and have been traced as far ſouth as the northern branches of the Alatamaha river. They are found in ſuch quantities, as that the indigo planters carry them away in large boat loads, for the purpoſe of making lime water, to be uſed in the manufacture of indigo. There are thouſands and thouſands of tons ſtill remaining.* The queſtion is, how came they here? It cannot be ſuppoſed that they were carried by land. Neither is it probable that they were conveyed in canoes, or boats, to ſuch a diſtance from the place where oyſters are now found. The uncivilized natives, agreeably to their roving manner of living, would rather have removed to the ſea ſhore, than have been at ſuch immenſe labour in procuring oyſters. Beſides, the difficulties of conveying them would have been inſurmountable. They

* "On the Georgia ſide of the river, about 15 miles below Silver Bluff, the high road croſſes a ridge of high-ſwelling hills of uncommon elevation, and perhaps 70 feet higher than the ſurface of the river. Theſe hills are from three feet below the common vegetative ſurface, to the depth of 20 or 30 feet, compoſed entirely of foſſil oyſter ſhells, internally of the colour and conſiſtency of clear white marble: they are of an incredible magnitude, generally 15 or 20 inches in length; from 6 to 8 wide, and from 2 to 4 in thickneſs, and their hollows ſufficient to receive an ordinary man's foot. They appear all to have been opened before the period of petrifaction; a tranſmutation they ſeem evidently to have ſuffered. They are undoubtedly very ancient, or perhaps antediluvian. The adjacent inhabitants burn them to lime for building, for which purpoſe they ſerve very well; and would undoubtedly afford an excellent manure, when their lands require it, theſe hills now being remarkably fertile. The heaps of ſhells lie upon a *ſtratum* of yellowiſh ſand mould, of ſeveral feet in depth, upon a foundation of ſoft white rocks, that has the outward appearance of free-ſtone, but on ſtrict examination is really a teſtaceous concrete, or compoſition of ſand and pulveriſed ſea ſhells. In ſhort, this teſtaceous rock approaches near in quality and appearance to the Bahama or Bermudian White Rock." *Bartram's Travels*, p. 318.

would not only have had a ſtrong current in the river againſt them, an obſtacle which would not have been eaſily overcome by the Indians, who have ever had a great averſion to labour; but could they have ſurmounted this difficulty, oyſters conveyed ſuch a diſtance, either by land or water, in ſo warm a climate, would have ſpoiled on the paſſage, and have become uſeleſs. The circumſtance of theſe ſhells being found in ſuch quantities, at ſo great a diſtance from the ſea, can be rationally accounted for in no other way, than by ſuppoſing that the ſea ſhore was formerly near this bed of ſhells, and that the ocean has ſince, by the operation of certain cauſes not yet fully inveſtigated, receded. Theſe phenomena, it is preſumed, will authorize this concluſion, that a great part of the flat country which ſpreads eaſterly of the Allegany mountains, had, in ſome paſt period, a ſuperincumbent ſea; or rather, that the conſtant accretion of ſoil from the various cauſes before hinted at, has forced it to retire.

Mountains.] The tract of country eaſt of Hudſon's river, comprehending part of the State of New York, the four New England States, and Vermont, is rough, hilly, and in ſome parts mountainous. Theſe mountains will be more particularly deſcribed under New England. In all parts of the world, and particularly on this weſtern continent, it is obſervable, that as you depart from the ocean, or from a river, the land gradually riſes; and the height of land, in common, is about equally diſtant from the water on either ſide. The Andes, in South America, form the height of land between the Atlantic and Pacific oceans. The high lands between the diſtrict of Maine and the province of Lower Canada, divide the rivers which fall into the St. Lawrence, north, and into the Atlantic, ſouth. The Green Mountains, in Vermont, divide the waters which flow eaſterly into Connecticut river from thoſe which fall weſterly into Lake Champlain, Lake George, and Hudſon's River.

Between the Atlantic, the Miſſiſſippi, and the lakes, runs a long range of mountains, made up of a great number of ridges. Theſe mountains extend north-eaſterly and ſouth-weſterly, nearly parallel to the ſea coaſt, about nine hundred miles in length, and from ſixty to one hundred and fifty and two hundred miles in breadth. Mr. Evans obſerves, with reſpect to that part of theſe mountains which he travelled over, viz. in the back part of Pennſylvania, that ſcarcely one acre in ten is capable of culture. This, however, is not the caſe in all parts of this range. Numerous tracts of fine arable and grazing land intervene between the ridges. The different ridges which compoſe this immenſe range of mountains, have different names in different ſtates.

As you advance from the Atlantic, the firſt ridge in Pennſylvania, Virginia, and North Carolina, is the Blue Ridge, or South Mountain, which is from one hundred and thirty to two hundred miles from the ſea. Between this and the North Mountain ſpreads a large fertile vale; next lies the Allegany ridge; next beyond this is the Long Ridge, called the Laurel Mountains, in a ſpur of which, about latitude 36°, is a ſpring of water fifty feet deep, very cold, and it is ſaid, as blue as indigo. From theſe ſeveral ridges proceed innumerable nameleſs branches or ſpurs. The Kittatinny mountains run through the northern parts of New Jerſey and Pennſylvania. All theſe ridges, except the Allegany, are ſeparated by rivers, which appear to have forced their paſſages through ſolid rocks.

The principal ridge is the Allegany, which has been deſcriptively called the *back-bone* of the United States. The general name for theſe mountains, taken collectively, ſeems not yet to have been determined. Mr. Evans calls them the *Endleſs Mountains*: others have called them the Appalachian Mountains, from a tribe of Indians who live

on

on a river which proceeds from this mountain, called the Appalachicola. But the moſt common name is the Allegany Mountains, ſo called, either from the principal ridge of the range, or from their running nearly parallel to the Allegany or Ohio river; which, from its head waters, till it empties into the Miſſiſſippi, is known and called by the name of Allegany River, by the Seneca and other tribes of the Six Nations, who once inhabited it. Theſe mountains are not confuſedly ſcattered and broken, riſing here and there into high peaks, overtopping each other, but ſtretch along in uniform ridges, ſcarcely half a mile high. They ſpread as you proceed ſouth, and ſome of them terminate in high perpendicular bluffs. Others gradually ſubſide into a level country, giving riſe to the rivers which run ſoutherly into the Gulf of Mexico.

They afford many curious phenomena, from which naturaliſts have deduced many theories of the earth. Some of them have been whimſical enough; Mr. Evans ſuppoſes that the moſt obvious of the theories which have been formed of the earth is, that it was originally made out of the ruins of another. "Bones and ſhells which eſcaped the fate of ſofter animal ſubſtances, we find mixed with the old materials, and elegantly preſerved in the looſe ſtones and rocky baſes of the higheſt of theſe hills." With deference, however, to Mr. Evans's opinion, theſe appearances have been much more rationally accounted for by ſuppoſing the reality of the flood, of which Moſes has given us an account. Mr. Evans thinks this too great a miracle to obtain belief. But whether is it a greater miracle for the Creator to alter a globe of earth by a deluge, when made, or to create one new from the ruins of another? The former certainly is not leſs credible than the latter. "Theſe mountains," ſay our author, "exiſted in their preſent elevated height before the deluge, but not ſo bare of ſoil as now." How Mr. Evans came to be ſo circumſtantially acquainted with theſe pretended facts, is difficult to determine, unleſs we ſuppoſe him to have been an Antediluvian, and to have ſurveyed them accurately before the convulſions of the deluge; and until we can be fully aſſured of this, we muſt be excuſed in not aſſenting to his opinion, and in adhering to the old philoſophy of Moſes and his advocates. We have every reaſon to believe that the primitive ſtate of the earth was totally metamorphoſed by the firſt convulſion of nature at the time of the deluge; that *the fountains of the great deep were indeed broken up*, and that the various *ſtrata* of the earth were diſſevered, and thrown into every poſſible degree of confuſion and diſorder. Hence thoſe vaſt piles of mountains which lift their craggy cliffs to the clouds, were probably thrown together from the floating ruins of the earth: and this conjecture is remarkably confirmed by the vaſt number of foſſils and other marine *exuviæ* which are found imbeded on the tops of mountains, in the interior parts of continents remote from the ſea, in all parts of the world hitherto explored. The various circumſtances attending theſe marine bodies leave us to conclude, that they were actually generated, lived, and died in the very beds wherein they were found, and therefore theſe beds muſt have originally been at the bottom of the ocean, though now in many inſtances elevated ſeveral miles above its ſurface. Hence it appears that mountains and continents were not primary productions of nature, but of a very diſtant period of time from the creation of the world; a time long enough for the *ſtrata* to have acquired their greateſt degree of coheſion and hardneſs; and for the teſtaceous matter of marine ſhells to become changed to a ſtony ſubſtance; for in the fiſſures of the lime-ſtone and other ſtrata, fragments of the ſame ſhell have been frequently found adhering to each ſide of the cleft, in the very ſtate in which they were originally broken; ſo that if the ſeveral parts were brought together, they would apparently tally with each other exactly.

exactly. A very conſiderable time therefore muſt have elapſed between the chaotic ſtate of the earth and the deluge, which agrees with the account of Moſes, who makes it a little upwards of ſixteen hundred years. Theſe obſervations are intended to ſhew, in one inſtance out of many others, the agreement between revelation and reaſon, between the account which Moſes gives us of the creation and deluge, and the preſent appearances of nature. Thoſe who wiſh to have this agreement more fully and ſatisfactorily ſtated, are referred to a very learned and ingenious "*Inquiry into the original ſtate and formation of the earth*," by John Whitehurſt, F. R.S. to whom I acknowledge myſelf indebted for ſome of the foregoing obſervations.

Soil and Vegetable Productions.] In the United States are to be found every ſpecies of ſoil that the earth affords. In one part of them or another, they produce all the various kinds of fruits, grain, pulſe, and hortuline plants and roots, which are found in Europe, and have been thence tranſplanted to America. Beſides theſe, a great variety of native vegetable productions.

The natural hiſtory of the American States, particularly of New England, is yet in its infancy. Several ingenious foreigners, ſkilled in botany, have viſited the ſouthern, and ſome of the middle ſtates, and Canada, and theſe ſtates have alſo had ingenious botaniſts of their own, who have made conſiderable progreſs in deſcribing the productions of thoſe parts of America which they have viſited; but New England ſeems not to have engaged the attention either of foreign or American botaniſts. There was never an attempt to deſcribe botanically, the vegetable productions of the eaſtern ſtates, till the Rev. Dr. Cutler, of Ipſwich, turned his attention to the ſubject. The reſult of his firſt inquiries was publiſhed in the firſt volume of the "Memoirs of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences." Since that period, the Doctor has paid very particular attention to this his favourite ſtudy; and the public may ſhortly expect to be gratified and improved by his botanical deſcriptions and diſcoveries.* To his liberal and generous communications, I am principally indebted for the following account of the vegetable productions of the eaſtern and middle ſtates.

N. B. The following catalogues are all incomplete, and deſigned only to give general ideas. They contain, however, more correct information concerning the Natural Hiſtory of New England, than has yet been publiſhed.

Grain cultivated in the Eastern and Middle States.] Indian corn (Zea mays) a native grain of North America. The varieties of this grain, occaſioned by a difference in ſoil, cultivation, and climate, are almoſt endleſs.† Winter and ſummer rye (ſecale cereale, hybernum et vernum,) the only ſpecies cultivated by our farmers. The winter rye ſucceeds beſt in ground newly cleared, but ſummer rye is

* The productions of the ſouthern ſtates and of Canada have not been well deſcribed by any one author, in a work profeſſedly for that purpoſe; but are moſtly intermixed with the productions of other parts of the world, in the large works of European botaniſts. This renders it difficult to ſelect them, and to give an accurate connected account of them. To remedy this inconvenience, and to reſcue this country from the reproach of not having any authentic and ſcientific account of its natural hiſtory, Dr. Cutler, who has already examined nearly all the vegetables of New England, intends, as ſoon as his leiſure will admit, to publiſh a botanical work, of conſiderable magnitude, confined principally to the productions of the New England ſtates. Dr. Barton, of Philadelphia, I am informed, is collecting materials for a work of a ſimilar nature, to comprehend the middle and ſouthern ſtates: ſo that both together will form a complete Natural Hiſtory of the American States.

† Of all the different kinds of Indian corn, botaniſts have been able to find but one *ſpecies*. The difference in this *genus* of plants is probably accidental, owing to the above-mentioned cauſes. It is poſſible, however, that among theſe *varieties*, *ſpecific* characters may yet be found. What is called the *ſpiked Indian corn*, is probably only a *variety*. The plant commonly known in the ſouthern ſtates by the name of *Guinea corn*, is of the family of graſſes, as are rye, wheat, barley, oats, &c.

frequently ſown in old towns, where the land has been long under cultivation. The winter and ſummer rye are the ſame ſpecies, forming two varieties; but the winter and ſummer wheat are two diſtinct ſpecies. Several ſpecies of barley are cultivated, the moſt common is the ſix ranked (Hordeum hexaſtichon,) and the two ranked (Hordeum diſtichon.) The wheat principally cultivated are the winter and ſummer (Triticum hybernum et æſtivum.)—Oats (Avena ſativa.)—Buck-wheat (Polygonum fagopirum.)

In the ſouthern States, as far north as Virginia, where the lands are ſuitable, beſides the grain already mentioned, they cultivate rice.—This grain was brought into Carolina firſt by Sir Nathaniel Johnſon, in 1688; and afterwards more and of a different kind, probably a variety, was imported by a ſhip from Madagaſcar, in 1696; till which time it was not much cultivated. It ſucceeds well alſo on the Ohio river, where it is planted both on the high and low grounds, and in the ſame fields with Indian corn and other grain. A gentleman who had planted it ſeveral years in his garden, informed Dr. Cutler that it yielded at the rate of 80 buſhels an acre. At Marietta, it has anſwered the moſt ſanguine expectations of the inhabitants, producing equal to any other grain, without being at any time overflowed with water. The Doctor himſelf ſaw it growing in a very flouriſhing ſtate, on high land, but it had not, at the ſeaſon he ſaw it, began to bloom. It was ſaid not to be of the ſame ſpecies of Carolina rice. It is probably the wild rice, which I have been informed grows in plenty, in ſome of the interior parts of North America, and is the moſt valuable of all the ſpontaneous productions of the country. In Pennſylvania grows a ſort of grain called, by the Germans, *Spelts*, which reſembles wheat; and is a very valuable grain.

Cultivated Grasses in the Eastern and Middle States.] All the graſſes, cultivated in the middle and New England States, are found growing indigenous. It is not improbable, however, that ſome of them may be naturalized exotics. The following are the principal graſſes ſown in our cultivated ground, or in any way propagated for feed and hay:

Herd's Graſs or Fox Tail, (Alopecurus pratenſis,) this is reckoned the beſt graſs we have, is a native, and ſuppoſed to be peculiar to this country. Blue Graſs (Alopecurus geniculatus.)—Many ſpecies of Bent (Agroſtis,) particularly the Rhode Iſland Bent (Agroſtis interrupta.) The ſmall and great Engliſh graſs (Poa trivialis et pratenſis.)—Wire graſs (Poa compreſſa.)—Fowl Meadow graſs (Poa aviaria, ſpiculis ſubbifloris.)* Red and white clover (Trifolium pratenſe et repens.)

The graſſes of Virginia, according to Mr. Jefferſon, are Lucerne, St. Foin, Burnet, Timothy, Ray, and Orchard graſs, red, white, and yellow clover; Greenſwerd, Blue graſs and Crab graſs. South of Virginia very little attention is paid to the cultivation of graſſes. The winters are ſo mild, that the cattle find a tolerable ſupply of food in the woods.

Native Grasses in New England.] Beſides the cultivated graſſes, the States of New England abound with a great variety which are found growing in their native ſoils and ſituations, many of which have not been deſcribed by any botanical writers. The ſmall experiments which have been made, ſufficiently evince that ſeveral of them make excellent hay. They might be greatly improved by cultivation, and are highly worthy the attention of our farmers. Thoſe which are found moſt common are the following, viz.

* "The Fowl meadows, on Neponſit river, between Dedham and Stoughton, are conſidered by ſome a curioſity. A large tract of land is there cleared and ſowed with an excellent kind of graſs, without the aſſiſtance of man." *Dr. Fiſher.*

The

The vernal graſs (Anthoxanthum odoratum.)—Timothy, or bulbus Cat's tail graſs (Phleum pratenſe.)—Several ſpecies of Panic graſs (Panicum)—Several ſpecies of Bent (Agroſtis)—Hair graſs (Aira aquatica)—Numerous ſpecies of *Poa*.—Quaking graſs, (Briza) ſeveral ſpecies—Cock's foot graſs (Dactylis glomerata)—Millet (Milium effuſum)—Feſcue graſs (Feſtuco) many ſpecies—Oat graſs (Avena ſpicata)—Reed graſs (Arundo) ſeveral ſpecies—Brome graſs (Bromus ſquarroſus)—Lime graſs (Elymus hyſtrix)—Barley graſs (Hordeum pratenſe)—Dog's or couch graſs (Triticum repens)—Many ſpecies of ruſh graſs (Juncus)—Numerous ſpecies of *Carex*, in freſh and ſalt, marſhy ground. Several ſpecies of Beard graſs (Andropogon)—Soft graſs, (Holcus lanatus et odoratus)—Beſides theſe, there are many valuable graſſes which, at preſent, are non-deſcripts.

Wild Fruits in New England.] Black Currant (Ribes nigrum)—Gooſeberry (Ribes gloſſularia)—Prickly Gooſeberry (Ribes cynoſbati)—Two ſpecies of Grapes—the Black Grape (Vitis labruſca,) and Fox Grape (Vitis vulpina.) Of theſe two ſpecies we have many varieties, differing only in ſize, colour, and taſte. An excellent wine, and in large quantities, has lately been made by the French people, at their new ſettlement on the Ohio river, from the native grapes, without any kind of cultivation. They collected the grapes promiſcuouſly from all the varieties growing in that country. By ſeparating them, wines of different, and no doubt ſome of them, of a much better quality, might have been made. The native grape is propagated with great eaſe; its growth is luxuriant, overſpreading the higheſt trees in the foreſts, and by proper attention would afford an ample ſupply of wines, in the northern as well as ſouthern States. The principal difficulty ſeems to be the want of a proper knowledge of the proceſs in making wine, and preparing it for uſe.—Barberry buſh (Berberis vulgaris)—Whortleberry (Vaccinium liguſtrinum)—Blueberry (Vaccinium corymboſum)—White Whortleberry (Vaccinium album)—Indian Gooſeberry (Vaccinium frondoſum)—Long-leaved Whortleberry (Vaccinium ſtamineum)—Craneberry (Vaccinium oxycouos)—Yellow Plum (Prunus americana)—Beach Plum (Prunus maratima)—Large black Cherry (Prunus nigra)—Purple Cherry (Prunus virginiana)—Wild red Cherry (Prunus rubra)—Dwarf or Choak Cherry (Prunus canadenſis)—Mountain Cherry (Prunus montana)—Service-tree (Meſpilus canadenſis)—Brambleberry (Rubus occidentalis)—Sawteat Blackberry or Bumblekites (Rubus fruticoſus)—Briar Blackberry (Rubus moluccanus)—Dewberry (Rubus hiſpidus)—Common Raſpberry (Rubus idæus)—Smooth-ſtalked Raſpberry (Rubus canadenſis)—Superb Raſpberry (Rubus odoratus)—Strawberry (Fragaria veſca.) The native ſtrawberry is much improved by cultivation, and produces a larger and better-flavoured fruit, than the exotic.—Mulberry (Morus nigra.)

For information on this article, reſpecting the Southern States, the reader may conſult what Cateſby, Clayton, Jefferſon, and Bartram have written upon it.

Nut Fruit.] White Oak (Quercus alba)—Red Oak (Quercus rubra) and ſeveral other ſpecies with ſmaller fruit.—Black Walnut (Juglans nigra)—White Walnut, Butternut, or Oilnut (Juglans cathartica)—White, or round nut Hiccory (Juglans alba)—Shag-bark Hiccory (Juglans cinerea.)*—Cheſnut (Fagus caſtanea)—Chinquipin, or dwarf Cheſnut (Fagus pumila)—Beech nut (Fagus ſylvatica.)—Hazlenut (Corylus avallana)—Filbert (Corylus cornuta.)

We may here mention the Paccan or Illinois nut (Juglans alba, foliolis lanceolatis, acuminatis, ſerratis, tomentoſis, fructu minore, ovato, compreſſo, vix inſculpto, dulci,

* The ſame, probably, as Clayton's Scaly bark hiccory of Virginia, (Juglans alba, cortice ſquamoſo.)

putamine,

putamine, tenerrimo. Jefferſon.) This nut is about the ſize of a large, long acorn, and of an oval form, the ſhell is eaſily cracked, and the kernel ſhaped like that of a walnut. The trees which bear this fruit grow, naturally, on the Miſſiſſippi and its branches, ſouth of forty degrees north latitude. They grow well when planted in the ſouthern Atlantic States.

Medicinal Plants in New England.] Among the native and uncultivated plants of New England, the following have been employed for medicinal purpoſes. Water Horehound (Lycopus virginica)—Blue Flag (Iris virginica)—Skunk Cabbage (Arum Americanum. Cateſb. and Dracontium fœtidum. Linn.)—Partridge-berry (Mitchella repens)—Great, and Marſh Plantain (Plantago major et maritima)—Witch Hazel (Hamamelis virginica)—Hounds tongue (Cynogloſſum officinale)—Comfrey (Symphytum officin.)—Bear's ear Sanicle (Cortuſa gmelini)—Appleperu (Datura ſtrammonium)—Bitterſweet (Solanum dulca-marc)—Tivertwig, or American Mazerion (Celaſtrus ſcandens)—Elm* (Ulmus americana)—Great Laſerwort, and Wild Angelica (Laſerpitium trilobum, et latifolium)—Angelica, or American Maſterwort (Angelica lucida)—Water Elder (Virburnum opulus)—Elder (Sambucus nigra)—Chickweed (Alſina media)—Pettimorrel, or Life of man (Aralia racemoſa)—Sarſaparilla (Aralia nudicaulis?)—Marſh Roſemary (Statice limonium)—Sundew (Droſera rotundifolia)—Solomon's Seal (Convallaria ſtellata?)—Adder's Tongue (Convallaria bifolia)—Unicorn (Aletris farinoſa)—Sweet Flag (Acorus calamus)—Several ſpecies of Dock (Rumex)—Biſtort (Polygonum biſtorta)—Spice wood, or Feverbuſh (Laurus benzoin)—Saſſafras (Laurus ſaſſafras)—Conſumption Root (Pyrola rotundifolia)—Rheumatiſm Weed (Pyrola minor)—Mouſe Ear (Ceraſtium viſcoſum)—Gargit, or Skoke (Phytolacca decandria)—Wild Hyſſop (Lythrum hyſopis)—Agrimony (Agrimonia cupatoria)—Common Avens, or Herb Bennet (Geum Virg.)—Water Avens, or Throat Root (Geum rivale)—Blood Root, or Puccoon (Sanguinario canadenſis)—Celandine (Chelidonium majus)—Yellow Water Lily (Nymphœa lutea)—Pond Lily (Nymphœa alba)—Golden Thread, or Mouth Root (Nigella?)—Liverwort (Anemone hepatica)—Crowsfoot (Ranunculus Pennſylv.)—Germander (Teucrum Virg.)—Catmint, or Catnip (Nepeta cataria)—Head Betony (Betonica officinalis)—Horſemint, Spearmint, Watermint, and Penniroyal (Mentha ſpicata, viridis, aquatica, et pulegium)—Ground Ivy, or Gill go over the ground (Glecoma hederacea)—Hedge Nettle (Stachys ſylvatica)—Horehound (Marrubium vulgare)—Motherwort (Leonorus cardiaca)—Wild Marjorum (Origanum vulgare)—Wild Lavender (Trichoſtema?)—Wood Betony (Pidicularis canadenſis)—Shepherd's Purſe or Pouch (Thlapſpi burſa paſtoris)—Water Creſſes (Siſymbrium naſturtium)—Cranesbill (Geranium macrorhizum)—Marſh Mallow (Althœa officin.)—Mallow (Malva rotundifolia)—Succory (Crepis barbata)—Burdock (Actium lappa)—Devil's Bit (Serratula amara) The root reſembles the European Devil's Bit (Scabivſa ſucciſa) from which circumſtance the Engliſh name has probably been applied to this plant.—Tanſey (Tanacetum vulgare)—Wormwood (Artemiſia abſinthiani)—Life everlaſting (Gnaphalium odoratiſſimum?)—Colts Foot (Tuſſilago farfara)—Golden-rod (Solidago canad.)—Elecampane (Inula helenium)—Mayweed (Anthemis cotula)—Yarrow (Achillea millefolia)—American Pride (Lobelia cardinalis) Three other ſpecies of Lobelia (Lobelia dortmanna, kalmii, et ſphilitica)—Dragon Root (Arum Virg.)—Stinging Nettle (Urtica urens)—White Walnut, Butter Nut, or Oilnut (Juglans cathartica)—Swamp Willow (Salix cinerea?)—Sweet Gale (Myrica gale)—White Hellebore, or Pokeroot (Veratrum album)—Moonwort (Of-

* The bark of the ſweet Elm, is a moſt excellent mucilage.

munda lunaria)—Female Fern (Pteris caudata)—Hearts Tongue (Aſplenium ſcolopendrium)—Spleenwort (Aſplenium ſalicifolium)—Black Maidenhair (Aſplenum adiantum.) To the above we may add, Arſinart (Polygonum Sagitatum. Linn.)

Among a great variety of other medicinal plants in the ſouthern and middle States are Pink Root ( ) an excellent vermifuge--Senna (Caſſia liguſtrina)—Clivers or Gooſe-graſs (Galium ſpurium)—Palma Chriſti (Ricinus) from which the Caſtor oil is expreſſed—Several ſpecies of Mallow--Indian Phyſic (Spiræa trifoliata)—Euphorbial Ipecacuanhæ--Pleurify Root (Aſclepias decumbens)—Virginia Snake Root (Ariſtolochia ſerpentaria)—Black Snake Root (Actæa racemoſa)—Seneca Rattle-ſnake Root (Polygala Senega)—Valerian (Valeriana locuſta radiata)—Ginſeng (Panax quinquefolium)—Angelica (Angelica ſylveſtris)—Caſſava (Jatropha urens.)

FLOWERING TREES AND SHRUBS IN THE UNITED STATES.] Globe Flower (Cephalanthus occidentalis)—Pigeonberry (Ciſſus ſicyoides)—Virginian Dogwood (Cornus florida)—Conel (Cornus canadenſis)—Red-flowered Honeyſuckle (Azalea nudiflora)—White American Honeyſuckle (Azalea viſcoſa)—American Tea (Ceanothus americanus)—Cherry Honeyſuckle (Lonicera diervilla)—Virginia ſcarlet Honeyſuckle (Lonicera virginiana)—Dwarf Cherry Honeyſuckle (Lonicera canadenſis)—Evergreen Spindle Tree (Euonymus ſempervirens)—Virginian Itea (Itea virginica) Stag's-horn Sumach (Rhus typhinum)—Black Haw (Viburnum prunifolium)—Blackberried Elder (Sambucus nigra)—Redberried Elder (Sambucus canadenſis)—Scarlet-flowered Horſe Cheſnut (Æſculus pavia)—Judas Tree (Cercis canadenſis)—Great Laurel (Kalmia latifolia)—Dwarf Laurel (Kalmia anguſtifolia)—Thyme-leaved Marſh Ciſtus (Ledum Thymifolium)—American Senna (Rhodora canadenſis)—Roſe Bay Tree (Rhododendrum maximum)—White Pepper Buſh (Andromeda arborea)—Red-bud Andromeda (Andromeda racemoſa)—Bog Evergreen (Andromeda calyculata)—Carolina Red-bud (Andromeda nitida)—Carolina Iron-wood Tree (Andromeda plumata)—Carolinian Syrianga (Philadelphus inodorus)—Sorbus Tree (Sorbus aucuparia)—Mountain Aſh (Sorbus americana)—Service Tree (Meſpilus canadenſis)—Medlar Tree (Meſpilus nivea)—Sweet-ſcented Crab Apple-tree (Pyrus coronaria)—Meadow Sweet (Spiræa ſalicifolia)—Queen of the Meadows (Spiræa tomentoſa)—Canadian Spiræa (Spiræa hypericifolia)—Wild Roſe (Roſa carolina)—Pennſylvanian Swamp Roſe (Roſa paluſtris)—Superb Raſpberry (Rubus odoratus)—Carolian Fothergilla (Fothergilla gardeni)—Tulip Tree (Liriodendrum tulipifera)—Evergreen Tulip Tree (Magnolia grandiflora)—Climbing Trumpet Flower (Bignonia radicans)—Virginian Stewartia (Stewartia malacodendron)—Franklin Tree (Franklinia alatamaha)—Locuſt Tree (Robinia pſeud acacia)—Roſeflowered Locuſt Tree (Robinia roſea)—Swamp Willow (Salix cinerea?)—Redflowered Maple (Acer rubrum.)

N. B. The above catalogue is far from being complete, but may ſerve to give a tolerable idea of this claſs of ſhrubs, in the United States.

FOREST TREES.] Were we poſſeſſed of accurate materials for the purpoſe, it would far exceed the limits of a work embracing ſuch a variety of ſubjects, to give a complete catalogue of our trees. From the foregoing catalogues the reader muſt neceſſarily conclude that they are very numerous. And it ought to be obſerved that almoſt all of them, for ſome purpoſe or other, have been uſed as timber. Some of the moſt uſeful ſpecies of trees, however, muſt not be omitted, and are the following—ELM (Ulmus americana) Of this tree there is but one ſpecies* of which there are

* Query. Is not what is called the *Sweet Elm*, the bark of which is uſed medicinally, and highly eſteemed, a different ſpecies from the *Ulmus Americana?*—

two varieties, the white and the red.—Wild Cherry; many ſpecies, highly valued for cabinet work.—Locust (Robinia pſeudo-acacia) of quick growth, good for fuel, and excellent for poſts to ſet in the ground, and trunnels for ſhips.—Birch; ſeveral ſpecies, 1. White (Betula alba) 2. Black (Betula nigra) 3. Red or Yellow (Betula lenta)—Oak; ſeveral ſpecies, 1. Black (Quercus niger) 2. Red (Quercus rubra) three varieties. 3. White (Quercus alba) 4. Shrub or Ground Oak (Quercus pumila) 5. Cheſnut Oak (Quercus prinus) 6. Live Oak (Quercus ſempervirens—Quercus Virginiana, Millar.) 7. Black Jack Oak (Quercus aquatica, Clayton) The two laſt are peculiar to the ſouthern States.—Chesnut (Fagus caſtanea) chiefly uſed for fencing. Beach (Fagus ſylvatica) three varieties.—Pine (Pinus) ſeven ſpecies. 1. White (Pinus ſtrobus) the prince of the American foreſts, in ſize, age, and majeſty of appearance. It is found in the greateſt abundance in Maine, New Hampſhire, and Vermont—Excellent for maſts, bowſprits and yards for ſhips.—2. Yellow (Pinus pinea) its plank and boards are uſed for the floors of houſes and the decks of ſhips—3. Black or Pitch Pine (Pinus tæda) when burnt in kilns it makes the beſt of charcoal; its knots and roots being full of the terebinthine oil, when kindled, afford a brighter light than candles; its ſoot is collected and uſed for lampblack. It grows ſparſely in the New England and middle States, but in the greateſt plenty in the ſouthern States, between the ſea coaſt and the mountains. From it they make tar in large quantities. 4. The Larch (Pinus larix) Its turpentine is ſaid to be the ſame with the Burgundy pitch. Beſides theſe, naturaliſts reckon the Fir (Pinus balſamea)—Spruce (Pinus canadenſis—Hemlock (Pinus abies)—Arbor Vitæ (Thuya occidentalis) the ſame as what is called White Cedar.—Juniper or Red Cedar (Juniperus virginica) It produces the Juniperberry.—White Cedar, of the ſouthern States (Cupreſſus Thyoides) different from the white cedar of the northern States.—Cypress (Cupreſſus diſticha) Found only in the ſouthern States—Uſed for ſhingles and other purpoſes. Grows in ſwamps, very large. White Willow (Salix alba) The bark of its root is an excellent ſubſtitute for the Peruvian bark.—Ash (Fraxinus americana) two ſpecies, Black, or Swamp Aſh, and White Aſh.—Maple, three ſpecies; 1. White (Acer negundo) much uſed in cabinet work. 2. Red (Acer rubrum) 3. Black Rock or Sugar Maple (Acer ſaccharinum) Its ſap has a ſaccharine quality; and when refined and hardened by boiling and baking, makes a well-taſted and wholeſome ſugar, the manufacture of which has greatly increaſed in the eaſtern and middle States, within a few years paſt.

There is in the United States, an infinitude of trees of leſs note, and many probably equally noticeable with thoſe enumerated, for a catalogue and deſcriptions of which, I muſt refer the reader, (till a more perfect catalogue be furniſhed by Dr. Cutler and Dr. Barton, to Cateſby's Natural Hiſtory—Dr. Clayton's Flora Virginica—Mr. Jefferſon's Notes on Virginia—Mr. Bartram's Travels through North and South Carolina, &c.—Dr. Cutler's paper in the Memoirs of the American Academy—and Dr. Belknap's Hiſtory of New Hampſhire, Vol. III.

Exotic Fruits.] Of theſe, Apples are the moſt common in the United States. They grow in the greateſt plenty and variety in the eaſtern and middle States; and the cyder which is expreſſed from them, affords the moſt common and wholeſome liquor that is drank by the inhabitants. The Crab Apple (Pyrus coronaria) though not an exotic, on account of its being a genuine, but diſtinct ſpecies of the Apple, ought to be mentioned in this connection. It grows in all parts of North America, which have been explored, from the Atlantic as far weſt as the Miſſiſſippi. Its bloſſoms are remarkably fragrant; its fruit ſmall, poſſeſſing, perhaps, of all vegetables, the

keeneſt acid. The cyder made of this fruit is admired by connoiſſeurs: it makes excellent vinegar. The European Crab Apple is very different from ours. The other exotic fruits are pears, peaches, quinces, mulberries, plums, cherries, currants, barberries, of all which, except quinces and barberries, we have many ſpecies and varieties. Theſe, with a few apricots and nectarines, flouriſh in the eaſtern States, and are in perfection in the middle States.*

The exotic fruits of the ſouthern ſtates, beſides thoſe already mentioned, are figs, oranges, and lemons.

Pulse and Hortuline Plants and Roots.] Beſides thoſe tranſplanted from Europe to America, of which we have all the various kinds that Europe produces, the following are natives of this country, Potatoes, (Solanum tuberoſum) Ground Nuts, a ſort of potatoe, probably a ſpecies, highly reliſhed by ſome people; Tobacco (Nicotiana)—Pumpkins (Cucurbita pepo)—Cymlings (Cucurbita verrucoſa)—Squaſhes (Cucurbito melopepo) Cantelope melons, Beans, Peas, Hops. Probably others.

Animals.] America contains, at leaſt, one half, and the territory of the United States about one fourth of the quadrupeds of the known world. Some of them are common to North America, and to the European and Aſiatic parts of the Eaſtern Continent; others are peculiar to this country. All thoſe that are common to both continents, are found in the northern parts of them, and are ſuch as may be ſuppoſed to have migrated from one continent to the other. Comparing individuals of the ſame ſpecies, inhabiting the different continents, ſome are perfectly ſimilar; between others, there is ſome difference in ſize, colour, or other circumſtances; in ſome few inſtances the European animal is larger than the American; in others, the reverſe is true. A ſimilar variety, ariſing from the temperature of the climate, quantity of food furniſhed in the parts they inhabit, degree of ſafety,† &c. takes place between individuals of the ſame ſpecies, in different parts of this continent.

But our information on this ſubject is not ſufficient to authorize many obſervations. It is very probable that ſome of our quadrupeds are utterly unknown; others are known only by common report, from hunters and others, and therefore could not be ſcientifically deſcribed; and with reſpect to many others, the multiplying and miſapplying names has produced great uncertainty and confuſion.

The Rev. Dr. Cutler has obliged mewith the following Catalogue of our Animals, with their Linnæan names annexed.

Seal	Phoca vitulina.
Wolf	Canis lupus
Red Fox	Canis alopex?
Grey Fox	Canis.
Wild cat	Felis lynx.
Skunk	Viverra putorius.
Otter	Muſtella lutra?
Martin	Muſtela.——
Weaſel	Muſtela martes?

* In regard to tree fruit" (ſays Dr. Tenny of Exeter, in New Hampſhire, in a letter to Dr. Belknap) "we are in too northern a climate to have it of the firſt quality, without particular attention. New York, New Jerſey and Pennſylvania, have it in perfection. As you depart from that tract, either ſouthward or northward, it degenerates. I believe, however, that good fruit might be produced even in New Hampſhire, with ſuitable attention. *Belknap's Hiſt.* N. H. Vol. III. p. 140.

† Animals in America which have been hunted for their fleſh or fur, ſuch as the mooſe, deer, beaver, &c. have become leſs in ſize ſince the arrival of the Europeans.

Ermine

Ermine	Muſtela erminea.
Bear	Urſus arctos.
Racoon	Urſus lotor.
Wolverine	Urſus luſcus.
Wood chuck	(Urſi vel muſtelæ ſpecies.)
Mole	Talpa europea.
Shrew mouſe	Sorex criſtatus.
Ground mouſe	Sorex murinus.
Field mouſe	Sorex araneus.
Porcupine	Hyſtrix dorſata.
Hare	Lepus timidus ?
Rabbit	Lepus cuniculus.
Beaver	Caſtor fiber.
Muſquaſh	Caſtor zibethicus.
Mink	——
Black rat	Mus——
Black ſquirrel	Sciurus niger.
Grey ditto	Sciurus cinereus.
Red ditto	Sciurus flavus.
Striped ditto	Sciurus ſtriatus.
Flying ditto	Sciurus volans.
Mooſe	Cervus tarandus.
Deer	Cervus dama.
Mamillary biped	
Bat	Veſpertilio murinus.

The importance of this part of our natural hiſtory has induced me to pay the moſt aſſiduous attention to it, and to ſeek information from every authority on the ſubject. With the liberal and generous aſſiſtance of an ingenious friend,* I have been enabled to form the following catalogue of the Quadruped animals within the United States, and to add the deſcriptions of them which ſucceed.

Mammouth	* Caribou	* Bear	* Catamount
Hippotamus †	* Red Deer	* Wolverene	* Cougar
* Biſon	* Fallow Deer	* Wolf	* Mountain Cat
* Mooſe	* Roe	* Fox	* Lynx
* Margay	* Opoſſum	* Flying Squirrel	* Muſquaſh
* Kincajou	* Woodchuck	Bat	* Morſe
* Weaſel	Urchin	* Field mouſe	* Seal
* Ermine	* Hare	* Wood Rat	Maniti
* Martin	* Racoon	* Shrew Mouſe	Sapajou
* Mink	* Fox Squirrel	* Purple Mole	Sagoin
* Otter	* Grey Squirrel	* Black Mole	
* Fiſher	* Red Squirrel	* Water Rat	
* Skrunk	* Striped Squirrel	* Beaver	

N. B. Thoſe Animals to which an aſteriſm * is prefixed, are fur animals; whoſe ſkins are ſometimes dreſſed in allum, with the hair on, and worn in dreſs; or whoſe fur or ſoft hair is uſed for various manufactural purpoſes.

* Dr. Fiſher of Beverly.

† This animal is added upon the authority of Dr. Mitchill, Prof. Nat. Hiſt. &c. Columbia College, N. York.

The

The Wolf, Fox, Weaſel, Ermine, Otter, Flying Squirrel, Bat, and Water Rat, are of the ſame ſpecies with the European animals of the ſame name.

The Fallow Deer, Grey Fox, Martin, Otter, Opoſſum, Woodchuck, Hare, ſome of theſe Squirrels, and the Beaver, have been tamed. Probably moſt of theſe, and ſome others, might be perfectly domeſticated. It has been obſerved of our wild animals, in general, that they are not of ſo ſavage a nature as thoſe in Europe.

Of the animals ſuppoſed to be larger in America than in Europe, are the following, viz. Mooſe or Elk, Fallow Deer, Bear, Weaſel, Otter, and Beaver. Of thoſe that are leſs, are the Hare, Red Squirrel, and Shrew Mouſe.

MAMMOTH.] This name has been given to an unknown animal, whoſe bones are found in the northern parts of both the old and new world. From the form of their teeth, they are ſuppoſed to have been carnivorous. Like the elephant they were armed with tuſks of ivory; but they obviouſly differed from the elephant in ſize; their bones prove them to have been 5 or 6 times as large. Theſe enormous bones are found in ſeveral parts of North America, * particularly about the ſalt licks or ſprings, near the Ohio river. Theſe licks were formerly frequented by a vaſt number of graminivorous animals, on account of the ſalt, of which they are exceſſively fond. From the appearance of theſe bones, ſome of which are entirely above ground, others wholly buried, it is probable that the animals died at different periods, ſome perhaps as lately as the firſt ſettlement of this country by the Europeans.

Mr. Jefferſon informs us, that a late governor of Virginia, having aſked ſome delegates of the Delawares, what they knew or had heard reſpecting this animal, the chief ſpeaker

* Col. G. Morgan, in a note to the Author, ſays they are found "only at the ſalt licks on the Ohio; ſome few ſcattered grinders, have indeed been found in other places; but it has been ſuppoſed theſe have been brought from the above-mentioned depoſit, by Indian warriors and others who have paſſed it; as we know many have been ſpread in this manner. When I firſt viſited this ſalt lick, ſays the Col. in 1766, I met here a large party of the Iroquois and Wyandot Indians, who were then on a war expedition againſt the Chicaſaw tribe. The head chief was a very old man to be engaged in war; he told me he was 84 years old; he was probably as much as 80. I fixed on this venerable chief, as a perſon from whom ſome knowledge might be obtained. After making him ſome ſmall acceptable preſents of tobacco, paint, ammunition, &c. and complimenting him upon the wiſdom of his nation, their prowneſs in war and prudence in peace, intimated to him my ignorance reſpecting the great bones before us, which nothing but his ſuperior knowledge could remove; and accordingly requeſted him to inform me what he knew concerning them. Agreeably to the cuſtoms of his nation, he anſwered me in ſubſtance, as follows.

"Whilſt I was yet a boy I paſſed this road, ſeveral times, to war againſt the Catawbas; and the wiſe old chiefs, among whom was my grandfather, then gave me the tradition, handed down to us, reſpecting theſe bones, the like to which are found in no other part of the country." It is as follows:

"After the Great Spirit firſt formed the world, he made the various birds and beaſts, which now inhabit it. He alſo made man; but having formed him white, and very imperfect and ill-tempered, he placed him on one ſide of it where he now inhabits, and from whence he has lately found a paſſage acroſs the great water to be a plague to us. As the Great Spirit was not pleaſed with this his work, he took of black clay, and made what *you* call a Negro, with a woolly head. This black man was much better than the white man, but ſtill he did not anſwer the wiſh of the Great Spirit, that is, he was imperfect; at laſt, the Great Spirit having procured a piece of pure, fine red clay, formed from it, the Red Man, perfectly to his mind; and he was ſo well pleaſed with him, that he placed him on this great iſland, ſeparate from the white and black men; and gave him rules for his conduct, promiſing happineſs in proportion as they ſhould be obſerved. He increaſed exceedingly, and was perfectly happy for ages; but the fooliſh young people, at length forgetting his rules, became exceedingly ill-tempered and wicked. In conſequence of this, the Great Spirit created the great buffaloe, the bones of which you now ſee before us; theſe made war upon the human ſpecies alone, and deſtroyed all but a few, who repented and promiſed the Great Spirit to live according to his laws, if he would reſtrain the devouring enemy: whereupon he ſent lightning and thunder and deſtroyed the whole race, in this ſpot, two excepted, a male and a female, which he ſhut up in yonder mountain, ready to let looſe again, ſhould occaſion require."

Col. Morgan adds, "I have every material bone of the anatomy of this animal, with ſeveral jaw bones in which the grinders are entire; and ſeveral of the great tuſks, one of which is ſix feet long"—He adds, "and twenty

ſpeaker immediately put himſelf into an oratorial attitude, and with a pomp ſuited to the ſuppoſed elevation of his ſubject, informed him that it was a tradition handed down from their fathers, "That in ancient times a herd of them came to the Big-bone licks, and began an univerſal deſtruction of the bears, deer, elks, buffaloes, and other animals which had been created for the uſe of the Indians: that the Great Man above, looking down and ſeeing this, was ſo enraged that he ſeized his lightning, deſcended to the earth, ſeated himſelf upon a neighbouring mountain, on a rock, on which his ſeat and the print of his feet are ſtill to be ſeen, and hurled his bolts among them till the whole were ſlaughtered, except the big bull, who, preſenting his forehead to the ſhafts, ſhook them off as they fell; but at length miſſing one, it wounded him in the ſide; whereon, ſpringing round, he bounded over the Ohio, the Wabaſh, the Illinois, and, finally, over the great lakes, where he is living at this day *."

Hippopotamus.] That this animal ever exiſted in America was not ſuppoſed till a few years ago. The ingenious Dr. Mitchill, in a letter to the author, ſays, "That in the year 1788, ſome teeth were dug up in Long Iſland, which, from their ſhape, ſize, and conſiſtence, beyond a doubt, belong to the Hippopotamus. Some of them, which were preſented to me, I forwarded to Mr. Peale of Philadelphia. They agree exactly with thoſe of the ſame animal, which I ſaw in the Aſhmolean Muſeum at Oxford, and in the Leverian Collection at London. They moreover correſpond, preciſely, with the plate and deſcription of that animal's ſkull and jaws, as given by Dr. Grew, in *Muſeo Regalis Societatis*; and printed at London in folio, 1681. He is, therefore, worthy of a place in our hiſtory as well as the Mammoth."

Biſon.] This animal has generally been called the Buffalo, but very improperly, as this name has been appropriated to another animal. He is of the ſame ſpecies with our common neat cattle, their difference being the effect of domeſtication. Compared with the neat cattle, the Biſon is conſiderably larger, eſpecially about the fore parts of his body. On his ſhoulders ariſes a large fleſhy or griſly ſubſtance, which extends along the back. The hair on his head, neck, and ſhoulders, is long and woolly, and all of it is fit to be ſpun or wrought into hats. Calves from the domeſtic cow and wild bulls are ſometimes raiſed; but when they grow up, they become ſo wild that no common fence will confine them.—Is found in the middle ſtates.

Theſe animals were once exceedingly numerous in the weſtern parts of Virginia and Pennſylvania; and ſo late as the year 1766, herds of 400 were frequently ſeen in Kentucky, and from thence to the Miſſiſſippi.

The American foreſts abound with various animals of the deer kind: naturaliſts have arranged them differently. I have followed M. de Buffon, who has reduced them all to the ſeveral ſpecies known in Europe.

Mooſe.] Of theſe there are two kinds, the black and the grey. The black are ſaid to have been from 8 to 12 feet high; at preſent they are very rarely ſeen. The grey Mooſe are generally as tall as a horſe, and ſome are much taller; both have ſpreading

twenty in circumference." But ſuppoſing ſome miſtake, and that probably the word *inches* ought to have been added to the *twenty*, I have not ventured to add it---or to alter it.

Salt works, of conſiderable importance, have been eſtabliſhed at the lick, where theſe bones are found.

* It has been ſaid by Mr. Jefferſon, that the grinders of the Mammoth are five or ſix times as large as thoſe of the elephant. Col. Morgan ſays not; "I have ſeen," he obſerves, "the grinder of an elephant as large and as heavy as the largeſt of the Mammoth.—They are indeed thinner, deeper rooted, and differently ſhaped, denoting a graminivorous animal; whereas the grinders of the Mammoth reſemble thoſe of a wolf or dog, and ſhew them to have been carnivorous."

palmated

palmated horns, weighing from 30 to 40 pounds. These are shed annually, in the month of February. They never run, but trot with amazing speed. In summer they feed on wild grasses, and the leaves of the most mucilaginous shrubs. In winter they form herds; and when the snow falls, by moving constantly in a small circle, they tread the snow hard, and form what is called a pen. While the snow is deep and will not bear them, they are confined within this pen, and eat all the bark and twigs within their reach. They are considered as of the same species with the Elk of the eastern continent.—They are found in New-England.

CARIBOU.] This animal is distinguished by its branching palmated horns, with brow antlers. He is probably the rein deer of the northern parts of Europe. From the tendons of this animal, as well as of the Moose, the aboriginal natives made very tolerable thread.—Found in the District of Main.

DEER.] The *Red Deer* * has round branching horns. Of this species we have three or four different kinds or varieties; one of which, found on the Ohio river, and in its vicinity, is very large, and there commonly called the ELK.

The FALLOW DEER * has branching palmated horns. In the United States, these animals are larger than the European, of a different colour, and supposed by some, to be of a different species. In the southern states, are several animals, supposed to be varieties of the ROE DEER.*

BEAR.] Of this animal two sorts are found in the northern states; both are black, but different in their forms and habits. One has short legs, a thick, clumsy body, is generally fat, and is very fond of sweet vegetable food, such as sweet apples, Indian corn in the milk, berries, grapes, honey, &c. Probably he is not carnivorous. As soon as the first snow falls, he betakes himself to his den, which is a hole in a cleft of rocks, a hollow tree, or some such place; here he gradually becomes torpid, and dozes away the winter, sucking his paws, and expending the stock of fat which he had previously acquired.

The other sort is distinguished by the name of the RANGING BEAR, and seems to be a grade between the preceding and the wolf. His legs are longer, and his body more lean aud gaunt. He is carnivorous, frequently destroying calves, sheep, and pigs; and sometimes children. In winter he migrates to the southward. The *former* appears to be the common black bear of Europe; the *latter* corresponds to the brown bear of the Alps; and is probably of the same species with those spoken of II. Kings ii. 24th, which formerly inhabited the mountainous parts of Judea, between Jericho and Bethel.——Found in all the States.

The WOLVERENE, called in Canada the *Carcajou*, and by hunters, the *Beaver Eater*, seems to be a grade between the bear and the woodchuck. He agrees exactly with the badger of Europe. His length is 1½ feet and upwards; his circumference nearly two feet; his head and ears resemble a woodchuck's; his legs short; feet and paws large and strong; tail about seven inches long, black, and very bushy or shaggy; hair about two inches long, and very coarse; his head, sallow grey; back almost black; breast, spotted with white; belly, dark brown; sides and rump, light reddish brown. This animal lives in holes, cannot run fast, and has a clumsy appearance. He is very mischievous to hunters, following them when setting their traps, and destroying their game, particularly the beaver.——Found in the northern States.

* The male of the Red Deer is called *Stag*: the female, *Hind*; the young, *Calf*. The male of the Fallow Deer is called *Buck*; the female, *Doe*; the young, *Fawn*. The *Roe Buck*, and *Roe Doe*, are the male and female of the Roe.

WOLF.] Of this animal, which is of the dog kind, or rather of the dog himſelf in his ſavage ſtate, we have great numbers, and a conſiderable variety in ſize and colour. The dimenſions of a ſkin, meaſured for writing this account, were as follows: length of the body 5 feet; the fore legs 18 inches; of the hind legs 15 inches; of the tail 18 inches. The circumference of the body was from 2½ to 3 feet. The colour of theſe animals in the northern States is generally a light dirty ſallow, with a liſt of black along their back. In ſome, the black is extended down their ſides, and ſometimes forms waving ſtreaks; others are ſaid to be ſpotted: ſome of them, particularly in the ſouthern States, are entirely black, and conſiderably ſmaller. The Indians are ſaid to have ſo far tamed ſome of theſe animals before their acquaintance with the Europeans, as to have uſed them in hunting. They next made uſe of European dogs, and afterwards of mongrels, the offſpring of the wolf and dog, as being more docile than the former, and more eager in the chaſe than the latter. The appearance of many of the dogs, in the newly-ſettled parts of the country, indicate their relation to the wolf.—— Found in all the States.

FOX.] Of foxes we have a great variety; ſuch as the Silver Fox, Red Fox, Grey Fox, Croſs Fox, Brant Fox, and ſeveral others. Naturaliſts have generally ſuppoſed that there is more than one ſpecies of foxes, but they differ very much in their mode of arranging them. It is highly probable, however, that there is but one ſpecies of theſe animals, as they are found in all their varieties of ſize, and of ſhades variouſly intermixed, in different parts of the United States. Foxes and other animals furniſhed with fur, of the northern States, are larger than thoſe of the ſouthern.

CATAMOUNT.] This animal, the moſt dreaded by hunters of any of the inhabitants of the foreſts, is rarely ſeen, which is probably the reaſon why no account of him has ever been publiſhed, to our knowledge, except what is contained in a letter of Mr. Collinſon's to M. de Buffon. The dimenſions of one, killed a few years ago, in New Hampſhire, as nearly as could be aſcertained by the ſkin, were as follows: the length of his body (including the head) 6 feet; circumference of his body 2½ feet; length of his tail 3 feet, and of his legs about one foot. The colour, along his back, is nearly black; on his ſides, a dark reddiſh brown; his feet black. He ſeems not calculated for running, but leaps with ſurprizing agility. His favourite food is blood, which, like other animals of the cat kind, he takes from the jugular veſſels of cattle, deer, &c. leaving the carcaſe. Smaller prey he takes to his den; and he has been known to carry off a child. He ſeems to be allured by fire, which terrifies all other carnivorous animals, and betrays no fear of either man or beaſt.—He is found in the northern and middle States.

COUGAR.] The body of this animal is about 5 feet long; his legs longer in proportion to his body, than thoſe of the common cat. His colour his a dark ſallow. In his habits and manners he reſembles the reſt of the family.—He is found in the ſouthern States, and there called the Tyger.

MOUNTAIN CAT.] (*Pardalis*, Linn. *Ocelot*, de Buffon.)—The length of his body is from 3½ to four feet; his tail about 2 feet. His colour is a ſallow ground, with black ſpots and ſtripes. The male has a black liſt along his back, and is the moſt beautiful animal of the cat kind. He is exceedingly fierce, but will ſeldom attack a man.—Found in the ſouthern States.

LYNX.] We have three kinds of the Lynx, each probably forming a diſtinct ſpecies. The *firſt*, (*Lupus Cervarius*, Linn. 3d edit.) is called by the French and Engliſh Americans, *Loup Cervier*.* He is from 2½ to three feet in length; his tail is about 5 inches.

* Pronounced Loocervee.

His hair is long, of a light grey colour, forming, in ſome places, ſmall, irregular, dark ſhades; the end of his tail is black. His fur is fine and thick. He is the Lynx of Siberia, and ſome of the northern parts of Europe. A few may be found in the north-eaſtern parts of the diſtrict of Main; but in the higher latitudes they are more numerous.

The *ſecond*, (*Catus Cervarius*, Linn.) is called by the French Americans, *Chat Cervier*; and in New England, the Wild Cat. He is conſiderably leſs than the former, or the *Loup Cervier*. He is from 2 to 2½ feet long; his tail is proportionably ſhorter, about 3 inches long, and wants the tuft of black hair on the end of it. His hair is ſhorter, particularly on his legs and feet; is of a darker colour, brown, dark ſallow, and grey, variouſly intermixed. His fur is ſaid to be of a very different quality; his ears are ſhorter, and he has very little of the pencil of black hairs on the tips of them, which is ſo remarkable in the former kind. This animal deſtroyed many of the cattle of the firſt ſettlers of New England.

The *third* ſpecies is about the ſize of a common cat. The colour of the male is a bright brown or bay, with black ſpots on his legs. His tail is about 4 inches long, and encircled by 8 white rings: the female is of a reddiſh grey.——Found in the middle and ſouthern States.

Margay.] This animal very much reſembles the European wild-cat, both in form and ſize. His colour is like that of ſome of our tabby cats, dark waving ſtreaks, on a ſallow ground——Found in the ſouthern States.

Kincajou.] This animal is frequently confounded with the Carcajou, though he reſembles him in nothing but the name. He belongs to the family of cats; at leaſt he very much reſembles them. He is about as large as a common cat, and is better formed for agility and ſpeed, than for ſtrength. His tail gradually tapers to the end, and is as long as his whole body. His colour is yellow. Between him and the fox there is perpetual war. He hunts in the ſame manner as do other animals of that claſs; but being able to ſuſpend himſelf by twining the end of his tail round the limb of a tree, or the like, he can purſue his prey where other cats cannot; and when he attacks a large animal, his tail enables him to ſecure his hold till he can open the blood veſſels of the neck. In ſome parts of Canada theſe animals are very numerous, and make great havoc among the deer, and do not ſpare even the neat cattle. But we have heard of none in theſe ſtates, except a few in the northern parts of New Hampſhire.

The Weasel is about nine inches in length; his body is remarkably round and ſlender: his tail long and well-furniſhed with hair; his legs very ſhort, and his toes armed with ſharp claws. His hair is ſhort and thick, and of a pale yellowiſh colour, except about the breaſt, where it is white. This is a very ſprightly animal; notwithſtanding the ſhortneſs of its legs, it ſeems to dart rather than to run. He kills and eats rats, ſtriped ſquirrels, and other ſmall quadrupeds: he likewiſe kills fowls, ſucks their blood, and eſteems their eggs a delicacy.

The Ermine does not differ materially from the weaſel in ſize, form, or habits; even his colour is the ſame in ſummer, except that the end of his tail is black, and the edges of his ears and toes are white. In winter he is entirely white, except the tip of the tail. He is generally conſidered as forming a ſpecies diſtinct from the weaſel; but Linnæus makes them the ſame.—They are ſaid to be found in Canada; and Dr. Belknap mentions, that a few have been ſeen in New Hampſhire.

In addition to the preceding, we have another variety of this family. It appears to differ from the weaſel in no reſpect, except its colour, which is perfectly white, both in ſummer and winter.

Martin.

MARTIN.] This animal is called the Martin (*Marte*) by M. de Buffon:—in England, the Pine Martin, Fir Martin, Yellow-breaſted Martin, Pine Weaſel, and Yellow-breaſted Weaſel; in New England the Sable; and by the Indians, Wauppanaugh. He is formed like the Weaſel; is generally about ſixteen inches long, and is of a ſallow colour; but his ſize, and the ſhades of his colour, vary in different parts of the country. Some have ſpots of yellow on the breaſt, others of white, and others have none. He keeps in foreſts, chiefly on trees, and lives by hunting.—He is found in the northern States.

MINK.] The Mink is about as large as a martin, and of the ſame form. The hair on its tail is ſhorter; its colour is generally black; ſome have a white ſpot under their throats; others have none. They burrow in the ground, and purſue their prey both in freſh and ſalt water. Thoſe which frequent the ſalt water are of a larger ſize, lighter colour, and have inferior fur. They are found in conſiderable numbers, both in the ſouthern and northern States.

OTTER.] The Otter very much reſembles the mink in its form and habits. Its colour is not ſo dark; its ſize much larger, being about 3 feet long and 15 inches in circumference. It lives in holes in banks near the water, and feeds on fiſh and amphibious animals.—Found in all the States.

FISHER.] In Canada he is called Pekan: in theſe ſtates frequently the Black Cat, but improperly, as he does not belong to the claſs of cats. He has a general reſemblance to the martin, but is conſiderably larger, being from 20 to 24 inches in length, and 12 in circumference. His tail is a little more than half his length; its hair long and buſhy. His fore legs about 4½ inches long, his hinder legs ſix inches. His ears ſhort and round. His colour is black, except the head, neck, and ſhoulders, which are a dark grey. He lives by hunting, and occaſionally purſues his prey in the water. —Found in the northern States.

SKUNK.] This animal is about a foot and an half long, of a moderate height and ſize. His tail is long and buſhy; his hair long and chiefly black; but on his head, neck, and back, is found more or leſs of white, without any regularity or uniformity. He appears to ſee but indifferently when the ſun ſhines; and therefore in the day-time keeps cloſe to his burrow. As ſoon as the twilight commences, he goes in queſt of his food, which is principally beetles and other inſects: he is alſo very fond of eggs and young chickens. His fleſh is ſaid to be tolerably good, and his fat is ſometimes uſed as an emollient. But what renders this animal remarkable is, his being furniſhed with organs for ſecreting and retaining a liquor, volatile and fœtid beyond any thing known, and which he has the power of emitting to the diſtance of a rod or more, when neceſſary for his defence. When this ammunition is expended he is quite harmleſs.* This volatile fœtor is a powerful antiſpaſmodic.—Found in all the States.

Another

* Concerning the American ſkunk, Dr. Mitchell, in a letter to Dr. Poſt, 1788, writes thus: "Not long ſince I had an opportunity to diſſect the American ſkunk (*Viverra putorius*, Linn.) The moſt remarkable appearances, on examination, were the following: the ſkin was exceedingly lax, inſomuch that when pulled away from the ſubjacent membrane, the hairs, in many places drawn through it, were left rooted in the fat; the urine poſſeſſed no more fœtor than is common to that excrementitious fluid in many other animals: but the peculiar odoriferous ſubſtance, which the creature emits when purſued, proceeds from two ſacks, each capable of containing about half an ounce, ſituated at the extremity of the *inteſtinum rectum*, and ſurrounded by large and ſtrong circular muſcles, which contracting by a voluntary exertion, force out the thick yellowiſh liquor through two ducts, opening near the verge of the anus. As the animal is neither ſwift nor ſtrong, this ſeems to have been given it as a defence againſt its enemies, on whoſe approach the volatile matter is diſcharged with conſiderable force, and to no ſmall diſtance. From its analogy to muſk, ambergris, civet, and

Another *Stinkard*, called the *Squaſh*, is ſaid by Buffon, to be found in ſome of the ſouthern States. He is of a cheſnut colour; climbs trees, and kills poultry.

Opossum.] This animal is about a foot and a half long; has a long pointed noſe, furniſhed with long ſtiff hairs; ears thin and naked; tail naked, nearly as long as the body, and capable of holding the animal ſuſpended; legs ſhort; feet ſmall and naked. He uſes his forepaws like a monkey. His body is well covered with a woolly fur, white at the roots, and black at the ends. His hair is long, thin, and coarſe; its colour black and white, forming a grey of various ſhades; and theſe different ſhades are often ſo intermixed as to give a ſpotted or variegated appearance. But the moſt ſingular part of this animal is a kind of falſe belly or pouch, with which the female is furniſhed; it is formed by a duplicature of the ſkin; is ſo placed as to include her teats, and has an aperture which ſhe can open and ſhut at pleaſure. She brings forth her young from four to ſix at a time, while they are not bigger than a bean; incloſes them in this pouch, and they, from a principle of inſtinct, affix themſelves to her teats: here they remain and are nouriſhed till they are able to run about, and are afterwards taken in occaſionally, particularly in time of danger. The Opoſſum feeds on vegetables, particularly fruit. He likewiſe kills poultry, ſucks their blood, and eats their eggs. His fat is uſed inſtead of lard or butter.—Found in the ſouthern and middle States.

Woodchuck.] (*Monax*, de Buffon.) His body is about ſixteen inches long, and nearly the ſame in circumference; his tail is moderately long, and full of hair. His colour is a mixture of ſallow and grey. He digs a burrow in, or near, ſome cultivated field, and feeds on pulſe, the tops of cultivated clover, &c. He is generally very fat, excepting in the ſpring. The young are good meat; the old are rather rank and diſagreeable. In the beginning of October they retire to their burrows, and live in a torpid ſtate about ſix months. In many reſpects he agrees with the *Marmot* of the Alps; in others he differs, and on the whole is probably not the ſame.

An animal reſembling the Woodchuck is found in the ſouthern States, which is ſuppoſed to form another ſpecies.

Urchin.] The Urchin, or Urſon, is about two feet in length, and, when fat, the ſame in circumference. He is commonly called Hedge-hog or Porcupine, but differs from both thoſe animals in every characteriſtic mark, excepting his being armed with quills on his back and ſides. Theſe quills are nearly as large as a wheat ſtraw, from three to four inches long, and, unleſs erected, nearly covered by the animal's hair. Their points are very hard, and filled with innumerable very ſmall barbs or ſcales, whoſe points are raiſed from the body of the quill. When the Urchin is attacked by a dog, wolf, or other beaſt of prey, he throws himſelf into a poſture of defence, by ſhortening his body, elevating his back, and erecting his quills. The aſſailant ſoon finds ſome of thoſe weapons ſtuck into his mouth, or other part of his body, and every effort which he makes to free himſelf, cauſes them to penetrate the farther; they have been known to bury themſelves entirely in a few minutes. Sometimes they prove fatal; at other times they make their way out again through the ſkin from various

and caſtor, I am ſtrongly inclined to think it might be with advantage ranked among the *antiſpaſmodics of the Materia Medica, or claſſed with drugs in the ſhops of perfumers.*

A ſimilar ſubſtance, although not ſo abundant and fragrant, I have likewiſe found in bags of the ſame kind, when I diſſected the common weaſel, (*Muſtela vulgaris*) which, in all probability, will be found to poſſeſs virtues not much differing from the *Spodnar*, or liquor of the *Viverra*, or the American ſkunk.

The Muſquaſh (*Caſtor muſchatus*) which I have alſo diſſected, has no ſacks of this kind, and therefore I am forcibly led to ſuſpect that its odour reſides in the cuticular exhalants, and perſpired matter."

parts of the body. If not moleſted, the Urchin is an inoffenſive animal. He finds a hole or hollow which he makes his reſidence, and feeds on the bark and roots of vegetables. His fleſh, in the opinion of hunters, is equal to that of a ſucking pig. —Is found in the northern States.

HARE.] Of this animal we have two kinds, which appear to be different ſpecies: the one is commonly called the White Rabbit, or Coney; the other ſimply the Rabbit; but from the proportional length of their hinder legs, and other ſpecific marks, they both belong to the family of the hare. The former has a covering of coarſe white hair, which comes on before winter, and falls off the enſuing ſpring. He is about half the ſize of a large European hare, and twice as large as the other kind. The latter burrows in the ground like a rabbit. They are both found in the ſame tract of country, but have not been known to aſſociate. The former is found in the northern States, and appears to be the ſame as the hare of the northern part of Europe; the latter is found in all the States, and is probably a ſpecies peculiar to America.

RACCOON.] The Raccoon, in the form and ſize of his body, reſembles the fox; his legs are larger and ſhorter. His toes are long, and armed with ſharp claws. His body is grey; his tail annulated with alternate rings of black and brown. In his manners he reſembles the ſquirrel; like him he lives on trees, feeds on Indian corn, acorns, &c. and ſerves himſelf with his fore paws. His fleſh is good meat, and his fur is valued by the hatters.—He is found in all the climates of the temperate zone in North America.

The FOX SQUIRREL.] Of this animal there are ſeveral varieties, black, red, and grey. It is nearly twice as large as the common grey ſquirrel, and is found in the ſouthern States, and is peculiar to this continent.

The GREY SQUIRREL of America does not agree exactly with that of Europe, but is generally conſidered as of the ſame ſpecies. Its name indicates its general colour; but ſome are black, and others black on the back, and grey on the ſides. They make a neſt of moſs in a hollow tree, and here they depoſit their proviſion of nuts and acorns; this is the place of their reſidence during the winter, and here they bring forth their young. Their ſummer houſe, which is built of ſticks and leaves, is placed near the top of the tree. They ſometimes migrate in conſiderable numbers. If in their courſe they meet with a river, each of them takes a ſhingle, piece of bark, or the like, and carries it to the water. Thus equipped, they embark, and erect their tails to the gentle breeze, which ſoon wafts them over in ſafety; but a ſudden flaw of wind ſometimes produces a deſtructive ſhipwreck. The greater part of the males of this ſpecies is found caſtrated.

A Grey Squirrel is found in Virginia, nearly twice as large as this. Whether it be the ſame, or a different ſpecies, is uncertain.

The RED SQUIRREL is leſs than the grey ſquirrel. It has a red liſt along its back, grey on its ſides, and white under the belly. It differs in ſome reſpects from the common European ſquirrel; but M. de Buffon conſiders it as the ſame ſpecies. Its food is the ſame as that of the grey ſquirrel, except that it ſometimes feeds on the ſeeds of the pine and other evergreens; hence it is ſometimes called the pine ſquirrel, and is found farther to the northward than the grey ſquirrel. It ſpends part of its time on trees in queſt of food; but conſiders its hole, under ſome rock or log, as its home.

The STRIPED SQUIRREL is ſtill leſs than the laſt mentioned. Its colour is red. It has a narrow ſtripe of black along its back: at the diſtance of about half an inch, on each ſide, is a ſtripe of white, bordered with very narrow ſtripes of black. Its belly

belly is white. In the males, the colours are brighter and better defined than in the female. It is sometimes called a mouse squirrel, and ground squirrel, from its forming a burrow in loose ground. Linnæus confounds it with a striped mouse squirrel, found in the north of Asia; but that animal is represented as in some measure resembling the mouse; whereas our's is a genuine squirrel. In the summer it feeds on apples, peaches, and various kinds of fruit and seeds; and for its winter store lays up nuts, acorns, and grain. It sometimes ascends trees in quest of food, but always descends on the appearance of danger; nor does it feel secure but in its hole, a stone wall, or some covert place.—Found in the northern and middle States.

Flying Squirrel.] This is the least and most singular of the class of squirrels. A duplicature of the skin connects the fore and hinder legs together: by extending this membrane, it is able to leap much farther, and to alight with more safety than other squirrels. It lives in the holes of trees, and feeds on seeds.—Is found in all the States.

Bat.] The Bat is so common and so singular a creature that a particular description of it is unnecessary.—Found both in America and Europe.

Field Mouse.] This species in England is called the short-tailed field mouse. It has a general resemblance to the common house mouse; but both its body and tail are larger and his hair has a slight reddish tint. Its food depends very much on its situation. In gardens it often destroys young fruit trees by eating their bark; in fields and meadows it feeds on the roots of grass, sometimes leaving a groove in the sward, which appears as if it had been cut out with a gouge. In woods, they are said to feed on acorns, and to lay up a large store of them in their burrows.

Wood Rat.] "This is a very curious animal; not half the size of the domestic rat; of a dark brown or black colour; their tails slender and short in proportion, and covered thinly with short hair. They are singular with respect to their ingenuity and great labour in constructing their habitations, which are conical pyramids, about three or four feet high, constructed with dry branches, which they collect with great labour and perseverance, and pile up without any apparent order; yet they are so interwoven with one another, that it would take a bear or wild cat some time to pull one of these castles to pieces, and allow the animals sufficient time to retreat with their young.

"There is likewise a ground rat, twice as large as the common rat, which burrows in the ground."—*Bartram's Travels.*

Shrew Mouse.] This is the smallest of quadrupeds, and holds nearly the same place among them as the humming bird does among the feathered race. Some of the European shrew mice are three inches long: we have seen but two or three of the American, and those dried; but should not judge that those ever exceeded two inches. Their head, which constitutes about one third of their whole length, has some resemblance to that of a mole; the ears are wanting; their eyes scarcely visible; the nose very long, pointed, and furnished with long hairs. In other respects these resemble the common mouse. They live in woods, and are supposed to feed on grain and insects.—Found in New England.

Mole.] The Purple Mole is found in Virginia; the Black Mole in New England; he lives in and about the water: they differ from one another, and both from the European.

The Water Rat is about the size of the common rat; brown on the back and white under the belly; feeds on aquatic animals.

Beaver.] The Beaver is an amphibious animal, which cannot live for any length of time in the water; and can exist without it, provided he has the convenience of

ſometimes bathing himſelf. The largeſt beavers, formerly, were four feet in length, and weighed fifty or ſixty pounds. At preſent they are not more than three feet in length, and may weigh from twenty-five to thirty pounds. The head of this animal is large, and his ears ſhort and round. Their fore teeth are prominent, long, broad, ſtrong, and grooved or hollowed like a gouge. Their fore legs are ſhort, with toes ſeparate; their hinder legs are long, with toes webbed. The tail is large, broad, and ſcaly, reſembling the body of a fiſh. Their colour is generally a dark brown, but varies according to the climate they inhabit. Their hair is long and coarſe; the fur very thick, fine, and highly valued. The caſtor uſed in medicine is found in ſacks formed behind the kidneys.

Their houſes are always ſituated in the water; ſometimes they make uſe of a natural pond, but generally they chooſe to form one by building a dam acroſs ſome brook or rivulet. For this purpoſe they ſelect a number of ſapplings of ſoft wood, generally of leſs than ſix inches diameter, but ſometimes of ſixteen or eighteen inches; theſe they fell and divide into proper lengths, and place them in the water, ſo that the length of the ſticks make the width of the dam. Theſe ſticks they lay in mud or clay, their tails ſerving them for trowels, as their teeth did for axes. Theſe dams are ſix or eight feet thick at bottom, ſloping on the ſide oppoſed to the ſtream, and are about a quarter as broad at top as at bottom. Near the top of the dam they leave one or more waſte ways, or ſliding places, to carry off the ſurplus water.

The formation of their cabins is no leſs remarkable. They conſiſt of two ſtories, one under, the other above water. They are ſhaped like the oval beehive; and of a ſize proportioned to the number of inhabitants. The walls of the lower apartments are two or three feet thick, formed like their dams; thoſe of the upper ſtory are thinner, and the whole, on the inſide, plaiſtered with mud. Each family conſtructs and inhabits its own cabin. The upper apartments are curiouſly ſtrewed with leaves, and rendered neat, clean, and comfortable. The winter never ſurprizes theſe animals, before their buſineſs is completed; for their houſes are generally finiſhed by the laſt of September, and their ſtock of proviſions laid in, which conſiſts of ſmall pieces of wood depoſited in the lower apartments. Before a ſtorm, all hands are employed in repairing or ſtrengthening their dams. They retain this induſtrious habit even after they are domeſticated. In ſummer they roam abroad and feed on leaves, twigs, and food of that kind. Theſe beavers are conſidered as the ſame ſpecies as thoſe in Europe, but are vaſtly ſuperior to them in every reſpect.

There is likewiſe a race of beavers, called *terriers*, who dig holes and live a ſolitary unſocial life. Theſe are probably ſavages, who have never formed themſelves into ſocieties, and conſequently have not made thoſe improvements, which are to be acquired only in a ſocial ſtate.—Found in all the States.

The Musquash or Musk Rat is about fifteen inches in length, and a foot in circumference. His tail is nearly a foot long, his hair very ſhort; the colour on his back, dark; on his ſides, generally reddiſh; his head and tail very much reſemble thoſe of a rat. This animal is furniſhed with glands, which ſeparate a ſubſtance that has the ſmell of muſk. In his mode of living, he is a diſtant imitator of the beaver; builds a rude cabin in ſhallow water, and feeds on vegetables.—Found in the northern and middle States.

The Morse or Sea Cow, more properly called the Sea Elephant, has two large ivory tuſks, which ſhoot from the upper jaw: its head alſo is formed like that of the elephant, and would entirely reſemble it in that part, if it had a trunk; but the morſe is deprived of that inſtrument which ſerves the elephant in place of an arm and hand;

hand, and has real arms. Theſe members, like thoſe of the ſeal, are ſhut up within the ſkin, ſo that nothing appears outwardly but its hands and feet. Its body is long and tapering, thickeſt towards the neck; the toes and the hands, or feet, are covered with a membrane, and terminated by ſhort and ſharp-pointed claws. Excepting the two great tuſks, and the cutting teeth, the morſe perfectly reſembles the ſeal; it is only much larger and ſtronger, the morſe being commonly from twelve to ſixteen feet in length, and eight or nine in circumference; whereas the largeſt ſeals are no more than ſeven or eight feet long. The morſes and ſeals frequent the ſame places. They have the ſame habits in every reſpect, except, that there are fewer varieties of the morſe than of the ſeal; they are likewiſe more attached to one particular climate, and are rarely found, except in the northern ſeas.

The SEAL, of which there are ſeveral ſpecies, is an amphibious animal, living the greater part of the time in the ſea, and feeds on marine plants. Theſe animals formerly frequented our northern ſhores; but at preſent have nearly forſaken them.

MANATI.] This animal forms the connecting link between beaſts and fiſhes. It cannot be called a quadruped; nor can it entirely be termed a fiſh; it partakes of the nature of the fiſh by its two feet or hands; but the hinder legs, which are almoſt wholly concealed in the bodies of the ſeal and morſe, are entirely wanting in the manati. Inſtead of two ſhort feet, and a ſmall, narrow tail, which is placed in a horizontal direction in the morſe, the manati has only a thick tail, ſpread out broad like a fan. It is a very clumſy miſhapen animal, with a head thicker than that of an ox; eyes ſmall; and the two feet are placed near the head, for the purpoſe of ſwimming. It is of ſufficient ſize to form a load for two oxen. Its fleſh, which is more like beef than fiſh, is ſaid to be excellent for eating. They are about 15 feet long, and 6 broad. As this animal has only fore feet, it has obtained the name of Manati, i. e. "an animal with both hands." The female has breaſts placed forward like thoſe of a woman, and ſhe generally brings forth two young ones at a time, which ſhe ſuckles. It is not properly amphibious; it only raiſes its head out of the water to feed on the herbage by the ſea-ſide.—This animal is very common in South America, and ſome, it is ſaid, have been found in the ſouthern States.

SAPAJOU. SAGOIN.] There are various ſpecies of animals ſaid to inhabit the country on the lower part of the Miſſiſſippi, called Sapajous and Sagoins. The former are capable of ſuſpending themſelves by their tails; the latter are not. They have a general reſemblance to monkeys; but are not ſufficiently known, to be particularly deſcribed.

BIRDS.] Several catalogues of the birds in the ſouthern and middle States have been publiſhed by different authors; and one, of thoſe in New Hampſhire, by Dr. Belknap; but no general catalogue of the birds in the American States has yet appeared. The following catalogue, which claims to be the moſt full and complete of any yet publiſhed, though far from perfection, has been carefully ſelected from Bartram's Travels, Jefferſon's Notes on Virginia, Belknap's Hiſtory of New Hampſhire, and a Manuſcript furniſhed by Dr. Cutler. Bartram's catalogue, as far as it extends, appears to be the moſt accurate and complete, and his mode of arrangement the moſt natural and intelligible; I have therefore adopted it, and inſerted his notes and references.*

Popular

* The birds to whoſe names in this catalogue, theſe marks [* † ‡ ‖ ¶] are prefixed, are land birds, which, according to Bartram, are ſeen in Pennſylvania, Maryland, Virginia, North and South Carolina, Georgia and Florida, from the ſea-coaſt weſtward to the Appalachian mountains, viz.

* Theſe

Popular Names.	*Bartram's Deſignation.*
The Owl.	Strix.
† Great White Owl	Strix arcticus, corpore toto niveo.
¶ Great Horned Owl	Strix pythaules, corpore ruſo.
† Great Horned White Owl	Strix maximus, corpore niveo.
§ Horned Owl	Strix bubo? Peck.
¶ Whooting Owl	Strix acclamator, corpore griſeo.
† Sharp Winged or Speckled Owl	Strix perigrinator, corpore verſicolore. Strix aluco. Cutler. Belknap.
¶ Little Screech Owl	Strix aſio, corpore ferruginio.
§ Barn Owl——	Strix paſſeri. Cutler. Belknap.
The Vulture.	Vultur.
‖ Turkey Buzzard	Vultur aura.
‖ White Tailed Vulture	Vultur ſacra.
‖ Black Vulture, or Carrion Crow	Vultur atratus.
Eagle and Hawk.	Falco.
¶ Great Grey Eagle	Falco regalis.
¶ Bald Eagle	Falco leucocephalus.
* Fiſhing Eagle	Falco piſcatorius.
¶ Great Eagle Hawk	Falco Aquilinus, cauda ferruginio.
¶ Hen Hawk	Falco gallinarius.
¶ Chicken Hawk	Falco pularius.
* Pigeon Hawk	Falco columbarius.
¶ Black Hawk	Falco niger.
* Marſh Hawk	Falco ranivorus.
* Sparrow Hawk, or leaſt Hawk	Falco ſparvenius.
§ Brown Eagle	Falco fulvus. Belknap.
§ Large Brown Hawk	Falco hudſonius? Belknap.
§ Pigeon Hawk	Falco ſubbuteo. Peck.
§ Fiſh Hawk	Falco haliætus. Peck.
§ Bird Hawk	Lanius Canadenſis. Belknap. Cutler.
Kite Hawk.*	Milvus.
‖ Forked Tail Hawk, or Kite	Falco furcatus.
‖ Sharp Winged Hawk, of a pale, ſky-blue colour, the tip of the wings black	Falco glaucus.
‖ Sharp Winged Hawk, of a dark or duſky blue colour	Falco ſubceruleus.

(*) Theſe arrive in Pennſylvania in the ſpring, from the ſouth; and after building their neſts and rearing their young, return ſouthward in autumn.

(†) Theſe arrive in Pennſylvania in autumn, from the north, where ſome of them continue during the winter, others continue their journey as far ſouth as Florida. They return northward in the ſpring, probably to breed and rear their young.

(‡) Theſe arrive in the ſpring, in Carolina and Florida, from the ſouth; breed and rear their young, and return again to the ſouth at the approach of winter. Theſe never migrate ſo far north as Pennſylvania.

(‖) Theſe are natives of Carolina, Georgia and Florida; where they breed and continue the year round.

(¶) Theſe breed and continue the year round in Pennſylvania.

(§) Theſe are found in New-England.

* Kite hawks are characterized by having long ſharp-pointed wings; being of ſwift flight; ſailing without flapping their wings; having long, light bodies, and feeding out of their claws on the wing.

Popular Names.	*Bartram's Deſignation.*
‖ Parrot of Carolina, or Parrakeet	Pſitticus Carolinienſis.
The Crow kind.	Corvus.
* The Raven	Corvus carnivorus.
‖ Great Sea-ſide Crow or Rook	Corvus maritimus.
¶ Common Crow	Corvus frugivorus.
§ Royſton Crow	Corvus cornix. Cutler.
¶ Blue Jay	Corvus criſtatus, pica glandaria.
‖ Little Jay of Florida	Corvus Floridanus, pica glandaria minor.
¶ Purple Jackdaw or Crow Blackbird	Gracula quiſcula.
* Leſſer Purple Jackdaw	Gracula purpurea.
* Cuckow of Carolina	Cuculus Carolinienſis.
Whet Saw	Cuculus———Carver.
Woodpeckers.	Picus.
‖ Greateſt Creſted Woodpecker, having a white back	Picus principalis.
* Great Red Creſted, Black Woodpecker	Picus pileatus.
* Red Headed Woodpecker	Picus erythrocephalus.
* Gold Winged Woodpecker	Picus auratus.
¶ Red Bellied Woodpecker	Picus Carolinus.
¶ Leaſt Spotted Woodpecker	Picus pubeſcens.
¶ Hairy, Speckled and Creſted Woodpecker	Picus villoſus.
¶ Yellow Bellied Woodpecker	Picus varius.
§ Swallow Woodpecker	Picus hirundinaceus. Cutler.
§ Speckled Woodpecker	Picus maculoſus. Cutler.
¶ Nuthatch	Sitta capite nigro. Cateſby.
† Small Nuthatch	Sitta capite fuſco. Cateſby.
† Little, Brown variegated Creeper	Certhia rufa.
* Pine Creeper	Certhia pinus.
* Blue and White, pied Creeper	Certhia picta.
* Great Creſted King Fiſher	Alcedo alcyon.
* Humming Bird	Trochylus colubris.
* Little Grey Butcher Bird of Pennſylvania	Lanius griſeus.
* Little Black Capped Butcher	Lanius garrulus.
* King Bird	Lanius tyrannus.
* Pewit, or Black Cap Fly Catcher	Muſcicapa nunciola.
* Great Creſted, Yellow Bellied Fly Catcher	Muſcicapa criſtata.
* Leſſer Pewit, or Brown and Greeniſh Fly Catcher	Muſcicapa rapax.
* Little Olive-coloured Fly Catcher	Muſcicapa ſubviridis.
* Little Domeſtic Fly Catcher, or Green Wren	Muſcicapa cantacrix.
* Red Eyed Fly Catcher	Muſcicapa ſylvicola.
* Turtle Dove of Carolina	Columba Carolinienſis.
‖ Ground Dove	Columba paſſerina.
† Wild Pigeon	Columba migratoria.

* Great

Popular Names.	*Bartram's Deſignation.*
* Great Meadow Lark	Alauda magna.
† Sky Lark	Alauda campeſtris, gutture flavo.
† Little Brown Lark	Alauda migratoria, corpore toto ferruginio.
Red Winged Starling—Marſh Black Bird, or Red Winged Black Bird	Sturnus niger alis ſuperne rubentibus. Cateſby.
¶ Robin Red Breaſt. Field Fare.	Turdus migratorius.
* Fox coloured Thruſh	Turdus ruſus.
* Mocking Bird	Turdus polyglottos.
* Wood Thruſh	Turdus melodes.
* Leaſt Golden Crown Thruſh	Turdus minimus, vertice aurio.
§ Croſs Bill	Loxia curvi roſtra? Belknap.
§ Cherry Bird	Ampelis garrulus. Cutler.
* Baltimore Bird, or Hang Neſt	Oriolus Baltimore.
* Goldfinch, or Icterus Minor	Oriolus ſpurius.
* Sand Hill Red Bird of Carolina	Merula flammula.
* Summer Red Bird	Merula Marilandica.
* Yellow Breaſted Chat	Garrulus auſtralis.
* Cat Bird, or Chicken Bird	Lucar lividus, apice nigra. Muſcicapa vertice nigro. Cateſby.
¶ Crown Bird, or Cedar Bird	Ampelis garrulus.

GRANIVOROUS TRIBES.

¶ Wild Turkey	Meleagris Americanus. Gallopavo ſylveſtris. Cateſby.
¶ Pheaſant of Pennſylvania, or Partridge of New England.	Tetrao tympanus.
¶ Mountain Cock, or Grous Ptarmigan. *(Mitchill.)*	Tetrao lagopus.
¶ Quail or Partridge	Tetrao minor, ſ. coturnix.
¶ Red Bird. Virginia Nightingale	Loxia cardinalis.
† Croſs Beak	Loxia roſtro forſicato.
* Blue Croſs Beak	Loxia cærulea.
* Rice Bird. * Boblincoln	Emberiza oryzivora.
‡ Blue or Slate coloured Rice Bird	Emberiza livida.
* Pied Rice Bird *	Emberiza varia.
‡ Painted Finch, or Nonpareil	Linaria ciris.
§ Red Linnet	Tanagra rubra.
* Blue Linnet	Linaria cyanea.
¶ Goldfinch. Yellow Bird *(Cutler.)* or Lettuce Bird	Carduelus Americanus. Fringilla triſtis. Linn.
† Leſſer Goldfinch	Carduelus pinus.
† Leaſt Finch	Carduelus puſilus.
* Towhe Bird, Pewee, Cheeweeh	Fringilla erythrophthalma. Paſſer nigris oculis rubris. Cateſby.

* The rice bird and pied rice bird are generally ſuppoſed to be male and female of the ſame ſpecies; the pied rice bird the male, and the other, the female. Called in New England boblincoln, conquedle; and by ſome, Old England blackbird.

Popular Names.	*Bartram's Deſignation.*
† Purple Finch	Fringilla purpurea.
§ Spring Bird	Fringilla. Cutler.
† Hemp Bird	Fringilla canabina.
§ Winter Sparrow	Fringilla griſea. Cutler.
† Red, Fox-coloured, Ground or Hedge Sparrow	Fringilla ruſa.
† Large, Brown, White-throated Sparrow	Fringilla fuſca.
* Little Houſe Sparrow, or Chipping Bird	Paſſer domeſticus
* Reed Sparrow	Paſſer paluſtris.
* Little Field Sparrow	Paſſer agreſtis.
† Snow Bird	Paſſer nivalis.
* May Bird	Calandra pratenſis.
* Red-winged Starling, or Corn Thief	Sturnus predatorius.
* Cowpen Bird	Sturnus ſtercorarius. Paſſer fuſcus. Cateſby.
* Blue Bird	Motacilla ſialis. Rubicula Americana cærulea. Cateſby.
* Water Wagtail	Motacilla fluviatilis.
* Houſe Wren	Motacilla domeſtica (regulus rufus.)
¶ * Marſh Wren	Motacilla paluſtris (regulus minor.)
* Great Wren of Carolina—Body dark brown, throat and breaſt, pale clay colour	Motacilla Caroliniana (regulus magnus.)
§ Grape Bird	Motacilla icterocephala. Cutler.
* Little Bluiſh Grey Wren	Regulus griſeus.
† Golden Crown Wren	Regulus criſtatus.
† Ruby Crown Wren *(Edwards)*	Regulus criſtatus, Alter vertice rubini coloris.
* Olive-coloured, Yellow-throated Wren	Regulus peregrinus, gutture flavo.
* Red Start	Ruticilla Americana.
* Yellow-hooded Titmouſe	Luſcinia, ſ. philomela Americana.
* Bluiſh Grey Creſted Titmouſe	Parus criſtatus.
¶ Black Cap Titmouſe	Parus Europeus.
* Summer Yellow Bird	Parus luteus.
* Yellow Rump	Parus cedrus, uropygio flavo.
§ Tom Teet	Parus atricapillus. Cutler.
* Various coloured Little Finch Creeper	Parus varius.
* Little Chocolate Breaſt Titmouſe	Parus peregrinus.
* Yellow Red Poll	Parus aureus, vertice rubro.
* Green Black-throated Fly Catcher	Parus viridis, gutture nigro.
* Golden winged Fly Catcher	Parus alis aureis.
* Blue-winged Yellow Bird	Parus aureus alis cæruleis.
* Yellow-throated Creeper	Parus griccus gutture luteo.
* Houſe Swallow, or Chimney Swallow	Hirundo pelaſgia, cauda aculeata.
* Great Purple Martin	Hirundo purpurea.
* Bank Martin or Swallow	Hirundo riparia, vertice purpurea.
§ White-bellied Martin	Hirundo——

Popular Names.	*Bartram's Deſignation.*
§ Barn Swallow	Hirundo ſubis. Cutler.
‡ Great Bat, or Chuckwills widow, or Goat Sucker	Caprimulgus lucifugus.
* Whip-poor-will *	Caprimulgus minor Americanus. Cateſby. Caprimulgus Europeus. Cutler.
* Night Hawk	Caprimulgus Americanus. Cutler.

AMPHIBIOUS *or* AQUATIC BIRDS, *or ſuch as obtain their food from, and reſide in the water.*

The CRANE.	GRUS.
‖ Great Whooping Crane	Grus clamator, vertice papilloſo, corpore niveo, remigibus nigris.
‡ Great Savanna Crane	Grus pratenſis, corpore cinereo, vertice papilloſo.
The HERON.	**ARDEA.**
¶ Great Bluiſh Grey Creſted Heron	Ardea Herodias.
* Great White River Heron	Ardea immaculata.
§ Crane	Ardea Canadenſis. Cutler.
* Little White Heron	Ardea alba minor.
§ Stork	Ardea ciconia. Cutler.
‡ Little Creſted Purple, or Blue Heron	Ardea purpurea criſtata.
* Grey, White Creſted, Heron	Ardea varra criſtata.
‡ Speckled Creſted Heron, or Crab Catcher	Ardea maculata criſtata.
* Marſh Bittern, or Indian Hen	Ardea migitans. Ardea ſtellaris Americana. Cateſby.
* Quaw Bird, or Frog Catcher	Ardea clamator, corpore ſubceruleo.
‡ Little Browniſh ſpotted Bittern	Ardea ſubfuſca ſtillata.
‡ Creſted Blue Bittern, called Poor Job	Ardea violacca.
* Green Bittern. Poke. Skouk.	Ardea vireſcens.
* Leſſer Green Bittern	Ardea vireſcens minor.
* Leaſt Brown and Striped Bittern	Ardea parva.
* Spoon Bill; ſeen as far north as the river Alatamaha	Patalea ajaja.
The WOOD PELICAN.	**TANTALUS.**
‡ Wood Pelican	Tantalus loculator.
‡ White Curlew	Tantalus alber.
‡ Duſky and White Curlew	Tantalus fuſcus.
‖ Crying Bird, beautifully ſpeckled	Tantalus pictus, (Ephouſkyka. Indian.)
‖ Ganet, perhaps little different from the Ibis	Tantalus Ichthyophagus.
‖ White Godwit	Numenius, alba varia.
¶ Great red-breaſted Godwit	Numenius pectore ruſo.
¶ The greater Godwit	Numenius Americana.
¶ Red Shark, or Pool Stripe	Numenius fluvialis.
¶ Great ſea-coaſt Curlew	Numenius magnus rufus.
* Leſſer field Curlew	Numenius minor campeſtris.

* Bartram conſiders the whip-poor-will and the night-hawk as the ſame bird (Caprimulgus Americanus) but they are well known to be different birds.

¶ Sea-ſide

Popular Names.	*Bartram's Deſignation.*
¶ Sea-ſide leſſer Curlew	Numenius cinereus.
* Great red Woodcock	Scolapax Americana rufa.
Wood Snipe	Scolapax ſedoa. Cutler.
* Meadow Snipe	Scolapax minor arvenſis.
* Red coot-footed Tring	Tringa rufa.
* White-throated, coot-footed Tring	Tringa cinerea, gutture albo.
* Black Cap, coot-footed Tring	Tringa vertice nigro.
¶ Spotted Tring. Rock bird	Tringa maculata.
¶ Little pond Snipe	Tringa griſeus.
¶ Little brown pool Snipe	Tringa fuſca.
¶ Little Trings of the ſea ſhore. Sand birds	Tringa parva.
Ox Eye	Tringa fulicaria? Cutler.
§ Humility	Tringa interpres? Cutler.
* Turnſtone or Dotrill	Morinella Americana.
† Wild Swan	Cygnus ferus.
† Canadian Gooſe	Anſer Canadenſis.
† Blue-winged Gooſe	Anſer aleis cæruleis.
† Laughing Gooſe	Anſer fuſcus maculatus.
† White Brant Gooſe	Anſer branta, corpore albo, remigibus nigris.
† Great parti-coloured Brant or Grey Gooſe	Anſer branta, griſea maculata.
† Great Wild Duck. Duck and Mallard	Anas fera torquata major, caput et collum viridi ſplendentis, dorſum griſeo fuſcum, pectore rufeſcente, ſpeculum violacrum.
† Great Black Duck	Anas nigra maxima.
† Bull Neck or Buffaloe Head Quindar	Acas bucepala.
† Blue Bill	Anas ſubcerulea.
† Black White-faced Duck	Anas leucocephala.
§ Wood Duck	Anas arborea.
† Sprigtail Duck	Anas caudacuta.
† Little Brown and White Duck	Anas ruſtica.
† Various coloured Duck, his breaſt and neck as though ornamented with chains of beads	Anas principalis, maculata.
† Little Black and White Duck, called Butter Back	Anas minor picta.
Sea Duck	Anas molliſſima. Cutler.
Sea Pigeon	Anas hiſtrionica? Cutler.
§ Old Wife	Anas Hyemalis. Peck. Anas ſtrepera? Cutler.
† Blue-winged Shoveller	Anas Americanus lato roſtro. Cateſby.
§ Dipper	Anas albeola. Cutler.
TEAL.	QUERQUIDULÆ.
* Summer Duck	Anas ſponſa.
† Blue-winged Teal	Anas diſcors.
† Leaſt Green-winged Teal	Anas migratoria.
* Whiſtling Duck	Anas fiſtuloſa.
† Great Fiſhing Duck	Mergus major pectore ruſo.
† Round-creſted Duck	Mergus cucullatus.

Popular Names.	*Bartram's Deſignation.*
* Eel Crow	Colymbus migratorius.
‖ Great Black Cormorant of Florida, having a read beak	Colymbus Floridanus
‖ Snake Bird of Florida	Colymbus colubrinus, cauda elongata.
¶‖ Great Black and White Pied Diver or Loon	Colymbus muſicus.
Large Spotted Loon, or	Colymbus Glacialis. Peck.
† Great Speckled Diver	Colymbus arcticus.
¶‖ Little-eared Brown Dobchick	Colymbus auritus et cornutus.
¶ Little-creſted Brown Dobchick	Colymbus minor fuſcus.
§ Dobchick or Notail	Colymbus podiceps. Peck.
§ Cream-coloured Sheldrake	Mergus merganſer? Cutler.
§ Red-bellied Sheldrake	Mergus ſerrator? Cutler.
§ Pyed Sheldrake	Mergus caſtor? Cutler.
§ Penguin	Alea impennis. Cutler.
§ Water Hen	Alea arctica? Cutler.
§ Murr	Alea torda. Peck.
§ Petteril	Procellaria pelagica. Peck.
‡ Tropic Bird	Phaæton ætherius.
¶‖ Great White Gull	Larus alber.
¶‖ Great Grey Gull	Larus griſeus.
¶‖ Little White, River Gull	Larus alba minor.
§ Mackarel Gull	Larus ridibundus. Cutler.
§ Fiſhing Gull	Sterna minuta. Cutler.
‡ Sea Swallow or Noddy	Sterna ſtolida.
§ Sea Sucker	Petromyzon marinus. Peck.
‖ Pintado Bird	Petrella pintado.
§ Thornback	Raja ſullonica? Peck.
¶‖ Shear Water or Razor Bill	Rynchops niger.
‡ Frigate or Man of War Bird	Pelicanus aquilus.
‡ Booby	Pelicanus ſula.
§ Shag	Pelicanus graculus. Cutler.
Pelican of the Miſſiſſippi, whoſe pouch holds 2 or 3 quarts	Pelicanus.——
¶‖ American Sea Pelican	Onocratalus Americanus.
The Plover Kind.	Charadrius.
* Kildee or Chattering Plover	Charadrius vociferus.
* Great Spotted Plover	Charadrius maculatus.
* Little Sea-ſide Ring-necked Plover	Charadrius minor.
* Will Willet, or Oyſter Catcher	Hematopus oſtrealegus.
‖ Great Blue or Slate-coloured Coot	Fulica Floridana.
§ White Head Coot	Anas ſpectabilis. Cutler.
§ Brown Coot	Anas fuſca. Cutler.
* Soree. Brown Rail. Widgeon	Rallus Virginianus.
‡ Little dark Blue Water Rail.	Rallus aquaticus minor.
* Greater Brown Rail	Rallus rufus.
‖ Blue or Slate-coloured Water Rail of Florida	Rallus major ſubceruleus.

§ Peep

Popular Names.	*Bartram's Deſignation.*
§ Peep	Rallus Carolinus. Cutler.
* Flamingo; ſeen about the point of Florida; rarely as far North as St. Auguſtine	Phœnicopterus ruber.

Beſides theſe, the following have not been deſcribed or claſſed, unleſs, under different names, they are contained in the above catalogue.

Sheldrach, or Canvas Back	Mow Bird
Ball Coot	Blue Peter
Water Witch	Water Wagtail
Water Pheaſant	Wakon Bird.

The Birds of America, ſays Cateſby, generally exceed thoſe of Europe in the beauty of their plumage, but are much inferior to them in the melody of their notes.

The middle States, including Virginia, appear to be the climates, in North America, where the greateſt number and variety of birds of paſſage celebrate their nuptials and rear their offſpring, with which they annually return to more ſouthern regions. Moſt of our birds are birds of paſſage from the ſouthward. The eagle, the pheaſant, grous, and partridge of Pennſylvania, ſeveral ſpecies of woodpeckers, the crow, blue jay, robin, marſh wren, ſeveral ſpecies of ſparrows or ſnow birds, and the ſwallow, are perhaps nearly all the land birds that continue the year round to the northward of Virginia.

Very few tribes of birds build or rear their young in the ſouth or maritime parts of Virginia, in Carolina, Georgia, and Florida; yet all thoſe numerous tribes, particularly of the ſoft-billed kind, which breed in Pennſylvania, paſs, in the ſpring ſeaſon, through theſe regions in a few weeks time, making but very ſhort ſtages by the way; and again, but few of them winter there on their return ſouthwardly.

It is not known how far to the ſouth they continue their rout, during their abſence from the northern and middle States.

"The Swan *(Cygnus ferus)* is the largeſt of the aquatic tribe of birds which is ſeen in this country. One of them has been known to weigh 36 lb. and to be 6 feet in length, from the bill to the feet, when ſtretched. It makes a ſound reſembling that of a trumpet, both when in the water and on the wing." (Belknap.)

The Canadian goose (*Anſer Canadenſis*) is a bird of paſſage, and gregarious. The offſpring of the Canadian and common gooſe are mongrels, and reckoned more valuable than either of them ſingly, but do not propagate.

The Ptarmigan (*Tetrao lagopus*) ordinarily inhabits the colder climates about Hudſon's Bay, but is ſometimes driven, through want of food, to the more ſouthern latitudes. In the winter of 1788 theſe birds were taken plentifully about Quebec. Whenever the winter of the Arctic region ſets in with rain, ſo as to cover the branches and leaves of trees with a glaze of ice, they are deprived of their food, and obliged to fly to the ſouth, to a milder climate, where it can be procured. Hence they frequently viſit the United States. Their feathers are moſtly white, covered with down quite to the nails, and their fleſh black, and of an exquiſite reliſh.

Probably this is a different bird from Bartram's Mountain Cock or Grous, though both have the ſame Linnæan name.

The Quail or Partridge (*Tetrao minor, ſ. coturnix*) This bird is the *Quail* of New England, and the *Partridge* of the ſouthern States; but is properly neither. It is a bird peculiar

peculiar to America. The *Partridge* of New England (*Tetrao tympanus*) is the *Pheaſant* of Pennſylvania, but is miſcalled in both places. It is a ſpecies of the *Grous*. Neither the Pheaſant, Partridge, or Quail, are found in America.

Cuckow (*Cuculus Carolinienſis.*) Theſe birds are ſaid not to pair, like the reſt of the feathered tribes. When the female appears on the wing ſhe is often attended by two or three males. Unlike all other birds, ſhe does not build a neſt of her own, but takes the opportunity, while the Hedge Sparrow (probably they make uſe of other neſts) is laying her eggs, to depoſite her egg among the reſt, leaving the future care of it entirely to the hedge ſparrow. The cuckow's egg requires no longer incubation than her own. When the hedge ſparrow has ſat her uſual time, and diſengaged the young cuckow and ſome of her own offspring from their ſhells, the young cuckow, aſtoniſhing as it may ſeem, immediately ſets about clearing the neſt of the young ſparrows, and the remaining unhatched eggs, and with ſurprizing expertneſs ſoon accompliſhes the buſineſs, and remains ſole poſſeſſor of the neſt, and the only object of the ſparrow's future care.*

The Wakon Bird, which probably is of the ſame ſpecies with the bird of Paradiſe, receives its name from the ideas the Indians have of its ſuperior excellence; the Wakon Bird being in their language the bird of the Great Spirit. It is nearly the ſize of a ſwallow, of a brown colour, ſhaded about the neck with a bright green. The wings are of a darker brown than the body. Its tail is compoſed of four or five feathers, which are three times as long as its body, and which are beautifully ſhaded with green and purple. It carries this fine length of plumage in the ſame manner as the peacock does his, but it is not known whether, like him, it ever raiſes it to an erect poſition.

The Whetsaw is of the cuckow kind, being, like that, a ſolitary bird, and ſcarcely ever ſeen. In the ſummer months it is heard in the groves, where it makes a noiſe like the filing of a ſaw, from which circumſtance it has received its name.—*Carver.*

The Humming Bird (*Trochilus colubris*) is the ſmalleſt of all the feathered inhabitants of the air. Its plumage ſurpaſſes deſcription. On its head is a ſmall tuft of jetty black; its breaſt is red; its belly white; its back, wings, and tail of the fineſt pale green; ſmall ſpecks of gold are ſcattered over it with inexpreſſible grace: and to crown the whole, an almoſt imperceptible down ſoftens the ſeveral colours, and produces the moſt pleaſing ſhades.

Amphibious Reptiles.] Among theſe are the mud tortoiſe or turtle (*Teſtudo denticulata.*) Speckled land tortoiſe (*Teſtudo Carolina.*) Great ſoft-ſhelled tortoiſe of Florida (*Teſtudo naſo cylindracea elongato, truncato.* Bartram.) When full grown it weighs from 30 to 40 pounds, extremely fat and delicious food.—Great land tortoiſe, called gopher, its upper ſhell is about 18 inches long, and from 10 to 12 broad.—Found ſouth of Savanna River.

Two ſpecies of freſh water tortoiſes inhabit the tide water rivers in the ſouthern States, one is large, weighing from 10 to 12 pounds; the back ſhell nearly of an oval form; the other ſpecies ſmall; but both are eſteemed delicious food.

Of the frog kind (*Ranæ*) are many ſpecies. The toad (*Rana buſo ?*) ſeveral ſpecies, the red, brown, and black. The former are the largeſt; the latter the ſmalleſt. Pond frog (*Rana ocellata.*) Green fountain frog (*Rana eſculanta.*) Tree frog (*Rana muculata.*) Bull frog (*Rana boans.*) Beſides theſe are the duſky brown, ſpotted frog of Carolina, 8 or 9 inches long from the noſe to the extremity of the toes; their voice reſembles the grunting of

* American Muſeum, for Jan. 1792, p. 35. Extracted from the Philoſ. Tranſactions of the Royal Society, London.

a ſwine. The bell frog, ſo called becauſe their voice is fancied to be exactly like that of a loud cow bell. A beautiful green frog, whoſe noiſe is like the barking of little dogs, or the yelping of puppies. A leſs green frog, whoſe notes reſemble thoſe of young chickens.--Little grey-ſpeckled frog, which makes a noiſe like the ſtriking of two pebbles together under the ſurface of the water. There is yet an extremely diminutive ſpecies of frogs, called by ſome Savannah crickets, whoſe notes are not unlike the chattering of young birds or crickets. They are found in great multitudes after plentiful rains.

Of lizards (*Lacertæ*) we have alſo many ſpecies. The alligator, or American crocodile, is a very large, ugly, terrible creature, of prodigious ſtrength, activity, and ſwiftneſs in the water. They are from 12 to 23 feet in length; their bodies are as large as that of a horſe, and are covered with horny plates or ſcales, ſaid to be impenetrable to a rifle ball, except about their heads and juſt behind their fore legs, where they are vulnerable; in ſhape they reſemble the lizard. The head of a full-grown alligator is about three feet long, and the mouth opens nearly the ſame length. The eyes are comparatively ſmall, and the whole head, in the water, appears at a diſtance like a piece of rotten, floating wood. The upper jaw only moves, and this they raiſe ſo as to form a right angle with the lower one. They open their mouths while they lie baſking in the ſun, on the banks of rivers and creeks, and when filled with flies, muſketoes, and other inſects, they ſuddenly let fall their upper jaw with ſurpriſing noiſe, and thus ſecure their prey. They have two large, ſtrong, conical tuſks, as white as ivory, which are not covered with any ſkin or lips, and which give the animal a frightful appearance. In the ſpring, which is their ſeaſon for breeding, they make a moſt hideous and terrifying roar, reſembling the ſound of diſtant thunder. The alligator is an evaporous animal; their neſts, which are commonly built on the margin of ſome creek or river, at the diſtance of 15 or 20 yards from the water, are in the form of an obtuſe cone, about 4 feet high, and 4 or 5 in diameter at their baſis. They are conſtructed with a ſort of mortar, made of a mixture of mud, graſs, and herbage. Firſt they lay a floor of this compoſition, on which they depoſit a layer of eggs; and upon this a ſtratum of their mortar, 7 or 8 inches thick; and then another layer of eggs, and in this manner, one ſtratum upon another, nearly to the top of the neſt. They lay from one to two hundred eggs in a neſt. Theſe are hatched, it is ſuppoſed, by the heat of the ſun, aſſiſted, perhaps, by the fermentation of the vegetable mortar in which they are depoſited. The female, it is ſaid, carefully watches her own neſt of eggs till they are all hatched; ſhe then takes her brood under her care, and leads them about the ſhores like as a hen does her chickens, and is equally courageous in defending them in time of danger. When ſhe lies baſking upon warm banks with her brood around her, the young ones may be heard whining and barking like young puppies. The old feed on the young alligators, till they get ſo large as that they cannot make a prey of them; ſo that happily but few of a brood ſurvive the age of a year. They are fond of the fleſh of dogs and hogs, which they devour whenever they have an opportunity. Their principal food is fiſh. In Carolina and Georgia they retire into their dens, which they form by burrowing far under ground, commencing under water and working upwards, and there remain in a torpid ſtate during the winter. Further ſouth, in warmer climates, they are more numerous, and more fierce and ravenous, and will boldly attack a man. In South America, the carrion vulture is the inſtrument of Providence to deſtroy multitudes of young alligators, which would otherwiſe render the country uninhabitable.

Beſides the alligator, we have of this ſpecies of amphibious reptiles, the brown lizard (*Lacerta punctata.*)—Swift (*Lacerta fuſciata ?*)--Green lizard, or little green cameleon of Carolina, about 6 or 7 inches long; it has a large red gill under its throat, and, like the

the cameleon, has the faculty of changing its colour. The ſtriped lizard or ſcorpion.—Blue-bellied, ſquamous lizards, ſeveral varieties.—Large copper-coloured lizard.—Swift, ſlender, blue lizard, with a long ſlender tail, as brittle as that of the glaſs ſnake. The two laſt are rarely ſeen, but are ſometimes found about old log buildings in the ſouthern States.

AMPHIBIOUS SERPENTS.] The characters by which amphibious ſerpents are diſtinguiſhed are theſe, the belly is furniſhed with ſcuta, and the tail has both ſcuta and ſcales. Of theſe reptiles, the following are found in the United States:

Rattle Snake	Crotalus horridus.
Yellow Rattle Snake Small Rattle Snake Baſtard Rattle Snake	Crotali ſpecies.
Moccaſin Snake Grey-ſpotted Moccaſin Snake of Carolina	Coluber—
Water Viper, with a ſharp thorn tail	Coluber punctatus.
Black Viper	Coluber preſter.
Brown Viper	Coluber luridus.
White-bodied, Brown-eyed Snake	Coluber atropos.
Black Snake with linear rings	Coluber leberis.
A Snake with 152 ſcutæ and 135 ſcutellæ	Coluber diſpas.
Bluiſh-green Snake, with a ſtretched out triangular ſnout, or Hognoſe Snake	Coluber mycterizans.
Copper-bellied Snake	Coluber erythrogaſter.
Black Snake	Coluber conſtrictor.
White Neck Black Snake	Coluber—
Small Brown Adder	Coluber ſtriatulus.
Houſe Adder	Coluber punctatis.
Water Adder	Coluber—
Brown Snake	Coluber ſipedon.
Little Brown Bead Snake	Coluber annulatus.
Coach Whip Snake	Coluber flagellum.
Corn Snake	Coluber fulvius.
Green Snake	Coluber æſtivus.
Wampum Snake	Coluber faſciatus.
Ribbon Snake	
Pine, Horn, or Bull Snake, with a horny ſpear in his tail	
Joint Snake	
Garter Snake	
Striped Snake	Anguis eryx?
Chicken Snake	Anguis maculata?
Glaſs Snake	Anguis ventralis.
Browniſh-ſpotted Snake	Anguis reticulata.
Yellowiſh-white Snake	Anguis lumbricalis.
Hiſſing Snake	
Ring Snake	
Two headed Snake	

The RATTLE SNAKE (*Crotalus horridus*) is the largeſt ſerpent yet known to exiſt in America. They are from four to upwards of ſix feet in length, and from four to ſix inches in diameter. Formerly, it is ſaid, they were much larger. Their rattles conſiſt of ſeveral articulated, cruſtaceous, or rather horny bags, forming their tails, which, when they move, make a rattling noiſe, warning people of their approach. It is ſaid, they will not attack a perſon unleſs previouſly provoked. When moleſted or irritated, they erect their rattles, and by intervals give the warning alarm. If purſued and overtaken, they inſtantly throw themſelves into the ſpiral coil; their whole body ſwells through rage, continually riſing and falling like a bellows; their beautiful parti-coloured ſkin becomes ſpeckled and rough by dilatation; their head and neck are flattened, their cheeks ſwollen, and their lips conſtricted, diſcovering their fatal fangs; their eyes red as burning coals, and their brandiſhing forked tongues of the colour of the hotteſt flame, menace a horrid death. They never ſtrike unleſs ſure of their mark. They are ſuppoſed to have the power of faſcination in an eminent degree; and it is generally believed that they charm birds, rabbits, ſquirrels, and other animals, in ſuch a manner as that they loſe the power of reſiſtance, and flutter and move ſlowly, but reluctantly, towards the yawning jaws of their devourers, and either creep into their mouths, or lie down and ſuffer themſelves to be taken and ſwallowed. This dreaded reptile is eaſily killed. One well-directed ſtroke on the head or acroſs the back with a ſtick not larger than a man's thumb, is ſufficient to kill the largeſt; and they are ſo ſlow of motion that they cannot make their eſcape, nor do they attempt it when attacked. Many different remedies for the bite of a rattle-ſnake have been preſcribed and uſed with different ſucceſs; the following, received from good authority, is recommended as a cure for the bite of all venomous ſnakes: "Bind a ligature tight round the leg or thigh, above the part bitten, ſo as to interrupt the circulation; then open or ſcarify the wound with a lancet, knife, or flint, and ſuck the wound or let a friend do it, then rub it with any unctuous matter, either animal or vegetable; or if that cannot be procured, make uſe of ſalt. Take care to keep the bowels open and free by drinking ſweet oil and milk or cream. If pure honey be at hand apply it to the wound, after opening and ſucking it, in preference to any other thing, and eat plentifully of honey and milk."

The baſtard rattle-ſnake is of the nature of the aſp or adder of the eaſtern continent; in form and colour they reſemble the rattle-ſnake; are eight or ten inches long, and very ſpiteful and venomous. Like the rattle-ſnake they throw themſelves into a coil, ſwell and flatten their bodies, continually darting out their heads, and ſeem capable of ſpringing beyond their length.—Found in the ſouthern States.

The moccaſin ſnake is from three to five feet in length, and as thick as a man's leg. When diſturbed by an enemy they throw themſelves into a coil, and then gradually raiſe their upper jaw till it falls back, nearly touching the neck, at the ſame time vibrating their long purple forked tongue, and directing their crooked poiſonous fangs towards their enemy. In this attitude the creature has a moſt terrifying appearance. It is ſaid their bite is incurable; but the probability is, that it is not. Like the rattle-ſnake they are ſlow in their motion, and never bite a perſon unleſs provoked.—Found in abundance in the ſwamps and low grounds in the ſouthern States.

The other moccaſin ſnake is about five or ſix feet long, and as thick as a man's arm, of a pale grey ſky-coloured ground, with brown undulatory ringlets. They are ſaid not to be venomous, have no poiſonous fangs, are very ſwift and active, and flee from an enemy.—Found in the ſouthern States, and ſuppoſed to be a ſpecies of the

wampum

wampum ſnake of Pennſylvania, if not the ſame ſnake, though larger and deeper coloured.

The black ſnake is of various lengths from three to ſix feet, all over of a ſhining black; it is not venomous; is uſeful in deſtroying rats, and purſues its prey with wonderful agility. It is ſaid that it will deſtroy the rattle-ſnake by twiſting round it and whipping it to death. It has been reported alſo that they have ſometimes twined themſelves round the bodies of children, ſqueezing them till they die.—They are found in all the States.

The coach-whip ſnake is of various and beautiful colours, ſome parts brown, or chocolate, others black and others white; it is ſix or ſeven feet long, and very ſlender and active; it runs ſwiftly, and is quite inoffenſive; but the Indians imagine that it is able to cut a man in two with a jerk of its tail. Like the black ſnake, it will run upon its tail, with its head and body erect.

The pine or bull ſnake, called alſo the horn ſnake, is the largeſt of the ſerpent kind known in North America, except the rattle-ſnake, and perhaps exceeds him in length. They are pied, black and white; are inoffenſive with reſpect to mankind, but devour ſquirrels, rabbits, and every other creature they can take as food. Their tails terminate with a hard horny ſpur, which they vibrate very quick when diſturbed, but they never attempt to ſtrike with it. They have dens in the earth to which they retreat in time of danger.

The glaſs ſnake has a very ſmall head; the upper part of its body is of a colour blended brown and green, moſt regularly and elegantly ſpotted with yellow. Its ſkin is very ſmooth and ſhining, with ſmall ſcales, more cloſely connected than thoſe of other ſerpents, and of a different ſtructure. A ſmall blow with a ſtick will ſeparate the body, not only at the place ſtruck, but at two or three other places, the muſcles being articulated in a ſingular manner quite through to the vertebra. They appear earlier in the ſpring than any other ſerpent, and are numerous in the ſandy woods of the Carolinas and Georgia, and harmleſs.

The joint ſnake, if we may credit Carver's account of it, is a great curioſity. Its ſkin is as hard as parchment, and as ſmooth as glaſs. It is beautifully ſtreaked with black and white. It is ſo ſtiff, and has ſo few joints, and thoſe ſo unyielding, that it can hardly bend itſelf into the form of a hoop. When it is ſtruck it breaks like a pipe ſtem; and you may, with a whip, break it from the tail to the bowels into pieces not an inch long, and not produce the leaſt tincture of blood. It is not venomous.

The two headed ſnake has generally been conſidered as a monſtrous production. I am diſpoſed to believe, however, that it is a diſtinct ſpecies of ſerpents. I have ſeen one, and received accounts of three others, found in different parts of the United States. One of theſe was about eight inches long, and both heads, as to every outward appearance, were equally perfect, and branching out from the neck at an acute angle.

The ſnakes are not ſo numerous nor ſo venomous in the northern as in the ſouthern States. In the latter, however, the inhabitants are furniſhed with a much greater variety of plants and herbs, which afford immediate relief to perſons bitten by theſe venomous creatures. It is an obſervation worthy of perpetual and grateful remembrance, that, wherever venomous animals are found, the God of nature has kindly provided ſufficient antidotes againſt their poiſon.

Fishes.] Fiſhes form the fourth claſs of animals in the Linnæan ſyſtem. Mr. Pennant, in his Britiſh Zoology, diſtributes fiſh into three diviſions, comprehending

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ſix orders. His diviſions are, into *Cetaceous*, *Cartilaginous*, and *Bony*. We are not ſufficiently informed on this part of our natural hiſtory, to arrange the following catalogue of our fiſhes agreeably to Mr. Pennant's judicious diviſions:

CETACEOUS FISH.

The Whale	Dolphin	Porpeſſe	Grampus	Beluga.

CARTILAGINOUS FISH.

Lamprey	Brown-ſpotted Gar fiſh	Red-bellied Bream
Skate	Lump fiſh	Silver or White Bream
Shark	Pipe fiſh	Yellow Bream
Dog-fiſh	Golden Bream or Sun fiſh	Black or Blue Bream.
Sturgeon		

BONY FISH.*

Eel	Conger eel	Cat fiſh
Snake fiſh	Skipjack	Minow
Haddock	Pout	Week fiſh
Cod	Horſe Mackarel	King fiſh
Froſt fiſh	Blue Mackarel	Sole
Pollock	Speckled Mackarel	Mummychog
Small Pollock	Salmon	White fiſh
Hake	Salmon Trout	Tide black fiſh
Sculpion	Trout	Rock black fiſh
Plaice	Smelt	Blue fiſh (Begallo)
Flounder	Pike or Pickerel	Sheeps head
Hollybut	Atherine	Red drum
Dab	Mullet	Black drum
Red Perch	Herring	Branded drum
White Perch	Carp	Sheeps-head drum
Yellow Perch	Pond fiſh	Moſsbonker
Sea Perch	Toad fiſh	Shadine
Whiting	Roach	Porfie
Sea Baſs	Shad	Dace
Striped Baſs	Hardhead	Anchovy
Shiner	Alewife	Flying fiſh.
Chub	Bret	
Stickleback	Sucker	

The WHALE (*Balæna myſticetus*) is the largeſt of all animals. In the northern ſeas ſome are found ninety feet in length; and in the torrid zone, where they are unmoleſted, whales have been ſeen 160 feet in length. The head is greatly diſproportioned to the ſize of the body. In the middle of the head are two orifices, through which they ſpout water to a great height. The eyes are not larger than thoſe of an ox, and are placed towards the back of the head, for the convenience of ſeeing both before and behind. They are guarded by eyelids as in quadrupeds; and they appear to be very ſharp ſighted, and quick of hearing. What is called *whalebone* adheres to the upper jaw, and is formed of thin parallel laminæ; ſome of the longeſt are twelve

* Probably ſome that are placed under this diviſion belong to one or other of the preceding. We are not able accurately to claſs them.

feet

feet in length: of theſe there are from 350 to 500 on each ſide, according to the age of the whale. The tail, which alone it uſes to advance itſelf in the water, is broad and ſemilunar, and when the fiſh lies on one ſide, its blow is tremendous.

In copulation the male and female join, it is aſſerted, *more humano*; and once in two years feel the acceſſes of deſire. Their fidelity to each other is remarkable. An inſtance of it is related by Mr. Anderſon, as follows—"Some fiſhers having ſtruck one of two whales, a male and a female, in company, the wounded fiſh made a long and terrible reſiſtance; it ſtruck down a boat, with two men in it, with a ſingle blow of its tail, by which all went to the bottom. The other ſtill attended its companion and lent it every aſſiſtance, till, at laſt, the fiſh that was ſtruck, ſunk under the number of its wounds, while its faithful aſſociate, diſdaining to ſurvive the loſs, with great bellowing ſtretched itſelf upon the dead fiſh and ſhared its fate." The whale goes with young nine or ten months, and generally produces one young one, never above two, which are black and about ten feet long. The teats of the female are placed in the lower part of the belly. When ſhe ſuckles her young ſhe throws herſelf on one ſide, on the ſurface of the water, and the young ones attach themſelves to the teats. Nothing can exceed the tenderneſs and care of the female for her young.

The whale louſe, ſword fiſh, and threſher (a ſpecies of *ſqualus*) are mortal enemies to the whale, who itſelf is an inoffenſive animal.

Formerly whales were found in plenty upon the coaſts of the United States; at preſent they are ſcarce. The principal branch of the whale fiſhery, in the United States, is carried on from Nantucket. The enterprize of the Nantucket whalemen is remarkable. Not ſatisfied with the ſcope which the Atlantic Ocean affords them, they have lately proceeded round Cape Horn, and penetrated the great Weſtern Ocean, in purſuit of whales. Capt. Worth has lately returned from a very ſucceſsful voyage, of which he gives the following account, viz. that he went to the ſouthward from Nantucket, doubled Cape Horn, and then purſued a north weſtwardly courſe, till he arrived at the iſland of Juan Fernandes. That here, where a harpoon was ſcarcely ever thrown, the whales ſwim in ſhoals, and that it is quite a matter of choice which of the company they ſhall fall upon. That along the coaſt of Chili, for a conſiderable diſtance at ſea, no rain falls to incommode the frying of blubber, as happens to the great diſadvantage of the whaling buſineſs in Hudſon's Bay and Davis's Straits; ſo that they can carry on their buſineſs without any of the interruptions common in other places, in conſequence of which they can make more advantageous voyages. A cargo worth 6000l. ſterling, it is ſaid, has been procured in a fifteen months voyage to this ocean. For the manner of taking the whales, ſee Part II.

The Beluga (*Delphinus beluga*) is the 4th and laſt ſpecies of the Dolphin genus. The head is ſhort, noſe blunt, eyes and mouth ſmall, in each ſide of each jaw are nine teeth, ſhort and rather blunt; thoſe of the upper jaw are bent and hollowed, fitted to receive the teeth of the under jaw when the mouth is cloſed; it has pectoral fins, nearly of an oval form; beneath the ſkin may be felt the bones of five fingers, which terminate at the edge of the fin in five very ſenſible projections. This brings it into the next rank, in the order of beings, with the *Manati*, which we have already deſcribed under the head of animals.—Found in the northern parts of the American coaſts, particularly in the Gulf of St. Lawrence and Hudſon's Bay.

The Lamprey frequents moſt of the rivers in the New England States, eſpecially where the paſſage is not interrupted by dams. That part of the lamprey which is below the air holes is ſalted and dried for food. After the ſpawning ſeaſon is over, and the young fry have gone down to the ſea, the old fiſhes attach themſelves to the

roots and limbs of trees, which have fallen or run into the water, and there periſh. A mortification begins at the tail, and proceeds upward to the vital part. Fiſh of this kind have been found at Plymouth, in New Hampſhire, in different ſtages of putrefaction.*

The amphibious lobſter is found in the ſmall brooks and ſwamps in the back parts of North Carolina. In its head is found the eye-ſtone.

INSECTS.] The following catalogues of inſects and vermes, except ſome ſmall additions and the annexed deſcriptions, are taken from Dr. Belknap's Hiſtory of New Hampſhire, vol. iii. p. 180—183.

Horned Beetle	Scarabæus ſimſon.
Carolina Beetle	Scarabæus Carolinus.
Dunghill Beetle	Scarabæus ſtercorarius.
Apple Beetle	Scarabæus horticola?
Golden Beetle	Scarabæus lanigerus.
	Several new ſpecies, and others that have not been arranged.
Stag Beetle	Lucanus cervus.
Fluted Beetle	Lucanus interruptus.
	Dermeſtes lardarius.
	Dermeſtes typographus.
Water Flea	Gyrinus natator.
Fetid Beetle	Silpha veſpillo.
Lady Fly	Coccinella 2—puſtulata.
	Several ſpecies.
	Chryſomela—many ſpecies.
Wheat Fly	
Weevil	Bruchus piſi.
Snouted Weevil	Curculio quercus.
	Many ſpecies.
Goat Chaffer	Cerambyx coriarius.
	Many ſpecies.
Fire Fly	Lampyris lucida.
	Several ſpecies.
Skipper	Elater oculatus.
	Many ſpecies.
Glow Worm	Cicindela Carolina.
	One or two other ſpecies.
Cantharides	Bupreſtris mariana.
	Two or three other ſpecies.
Water Beetle	Dytiſcus piceus.
	Dytiſcus marginalis.
	Dytiſcus ſtriatus.
	Several other ſpecies.
Black Beetle	Carabus Americanus.
	Numerous ſpecies.

* Belknap's Hiſt. New Hampſhire, vol. iii. p. 176.

Bloſſom Eater	Meloe nigra.
	Staphylinus maxilloſus.
	Forſicula.—Two ſpecies.
Cockroach	Blatta Americana, (non indigenus.)
Graſshopper, Cricket, Locuſt	Grillus.—Numerous ſpecies.
Mole Cricket	Grillus gryllotalpa.
Froghopper, Balm Cricket	Cicada.—Many ſpecies.
Large and Small Water Fly, Boat Fly	Notanecta.—Several ſpecies.
Bug	Cinex.—Numerous ſpecies.
Louſe, on cabbages	Aphis braſſicæ.
Louſe, on leaves of trees and plants	Aphis.—Numerous ſpecies.
Bug, on plants and trees	Chermes.—Many ſpecies.
Butterfly	Papilio. {Numerous ſpecies, and ſeveral non-deſcripts.
Night Flutterer	Sphinx.
Owl Moth	Many new ſpecies.
Moth, or Miller	Palæna.—Numerous ſpecies.
Apple Moth, or Canker Worm	Phalæna wauaria ?
Dragon Fly, Adder Fly	Libellula.—Several ſpecies.
	Hemerobius pectinicornis.
	Several ſpecies.
Oak Apple Fly	Cynips.—Several ſpecies.
Saw Fly	Tenthredo betulæ.
Waſp, Hornet	Veſpa.—Many ſpecies.
Bumble Bee, Wild Bee	Aſpis.—Several ſpecies.
Ant	Formica.—Several ſpecies.
Black Fly, Brown Fly	Muſca.—Numerous ſpecies.
Horſe Fly	Tabanus.—Several ſpecies.
Moſquito, or Muſketoe	Culex pipiens.
Stinging Fly	Conops calcitrans.
Snow Flea	Podura nivalis.
Father Long Legs	Phalangium.
	Several ſpecies.
Spider	Aranea.—Many ſpecies.
Crab, Lobſter, Shrimp, Hermit Crab, Slender Crab	Cancer.—Many ſpecies.

King Crab, or Horſe Shoe	Monoculus polyphemus.
	Monoculus piſcinus.
Cray Fiſh.	
Amphibious Lobſter.	
	Monoculus pulex.
	Monoculus quadricornis.

V E R M E S.

Sea Clam	Holothuria phantaphus.
Squid	Sepia media.
	Sepia loligo.
Sea Lungs	Meduſa pilearis.
Star Fiſh, or Finger Fiſh	Aſterias.—Three or four ſpecies.
Sea Egg	Echinus.—Several ſpecies.
Barnacle	Lepas anatifera.
Hog Clam	Mya arenaria.
Razor Shell Clam	Solen enſis.
Long Shell Clam	Solen radiatis.
Oyſter	Oſtrea ———.
Muſcle	Mytilus edulis.
Cockle	Nerita littoralis?
Limpets	Patella fuſca.
Sand Shell Clam	Sabella granulata.
Sea Anemone	Anemone marina (locomotiva.)

The Wheat Fly, commonly, but improperly, called the Heſſian Fly, which has, of late years, proved ſo deſtructive to the wheat in various parts of the United States, has generally been ſuppoſed to have been imported from Europe. This opinion, however, ſeems not to be well founded. Count Ginnanni of Ravenna, in a late learned Treatiſe on the Diſeaſes of Wheat in its growing State between Seed Time and Harveſt, has given an account of more than fifty different inſects that infeſt the Italian wheat, and yet our *wheat fly* is not delineated nor deſcribed. There is reaſon, therefore, to doubt its exiſtence in the ſouth of Europe. Sir Joſeph Banks ſaid it did not exiſt in England; nor could he collect any account of it in Germany. This deſtructive inſect is probably a *non-deſcript*, and peculiar to the United States.*

The

* The following intereſting information reſpecting this inſect, communicated to the preſident of the Philadelphia Society for promoting Agriculture, deſerves to be made as public as poſſible, for the benefit of our farmers whoſe fields are or may hereafter be liable to the ravages of this devouring fly.

Proſpect Hill, June 12, 1792. [State of Delaware.]

Dear Sir,

As the wheat fields in this neighbourhood are now ſuffering from the ravages of the Heſſian fly, I have had an opportunity of obſerving ſome facts relating to this deſtructive inſect, which, perhaps, if publicly made known, may ſerve to obviate, or at leaſt to diminiſh, its pernicious effects.

This fly made its firſt appearance in this neighbourhood about the 15th of laſt September. They arrived in prodigious clouds, and immediately depoſited their eggs in the wheat, which at that time afforded them a ſuitable nidus. I diſcovered, by accurate obſervation, that the plants, which had then preciſely two blades, were ſelected for this purpoſe. In the junction of theſe two blades, immediately at the root of the plant, the eggs were laid, amounting, in ſome inſtances, to a dozen and more. As theſe eggs continued to ſwell, the compreſſion upon the tender capillary veſſels of the plant became more violent, until, at length, all circulation

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The Ink or Cuttle fiſh is a curioſity. It is furniſhed with a cyſt of black liquor, which is a tolerable ſubſtitute for ink. This it emits, when purſued by its enemies. The moment this liquor is emitted, the water becomes like a thick black cloud in the eyes of its purſuer, and it improves this opportunity to make its eſcape. This cyſt of liquor appears deſigned by Providence ſolely for the purpoſe of perſonal defence, and is certainly a moſt apt and curious contrivance. The whalemen call theſe fiſh, *Squids*, and ſay that they are eaten in abundance by ſome ſpecies of whales.

POPULATION.] According to the cenſus, taken by order of Congreſs, in 1790, the number of inhabitants in the United States of America, was three millions nine hundred thirty thouſand, nearly. In this number, none of the inhabitants of the territory N. W. of the River Ohio, are included. Theſe added, would undoubtedly have increaſed the number to 3,950,000, at the period the cenſus was taken. The increaſe ſince, on ſuppoſition that the inhabitants of the United States double once in twenty years, has been about 200,000: ſo that now, 1792, there are, probably, 4,150,000 ſouls in the American United States.

This number is rapidly multiplying by emigrations from Europe, as well as by natural increaſe. The American republic is compoſed of almoſt all nations, languages, characters, and religions, which Europe can furniſh; the greater part, however, are deſcended from the Engliſh; and all may, perhaps, be diſtinguiſhingly denominated FEDERAL AMERICANS.

was intercepted, and theſe blades were deſtroyed. Where the ſoil was thin, I obſerved, that, with theſe blades, the plant alſo periſhed; but in rich ground, freſh ſhoots were made from the root of the plant juſt below the junction of the original blades, and became flouriſhing plants in the fall, or early in the ſpring. As the laſt fall was very dry and mild, many of theſe eggs were hatched before winter; but I do not imagine the grubs could have arrived at the fly ſtate before the froſts; ſo that, in all probability, they were deſtroyed before the ſpring. Very early, however, in May, the fly appeared in great numbers, which muſt have been hatched at the cloſe of the winter, or have come from a diſtance to us. They depoſited their eggs immediately in the ſpring wheat, and that which had been ſown late in the fall; and, according to the quality of the ſoil, their effect has been preciſely the ſame. A piece of yellow-bearded wheat, which I ſowed in November, is the only field that I have examined in which there is no appearance of this inſect; and I am informed by my neighbours, that this is the caſe wherever this ſpecies of wheat has been ſown. I own that I am at a loſs to account for this quality in the bearded wheat; the two firſt blades of which, it ſhould ſeem, are equally tender as thoſe of any other kind. Its power of reſiſtance may poſſibly ariſe chiefly from its being leſs debilitated by the winter froſt, and conſequently from being ſooner out of the way of the fly early in the ſpring. At any rate, it certainly admits of being ſown later than any other, and thus effectually eſcapes the fall ravages of the inſect. It follows, from what has been obſerved, that late ſowing of the yellow-bearded wheat upon rich land, is the only certain method of preventing the ravages of the fly. If the ſeed, moreover, be ſteeped in ſtrong brine, or a decoction of elders, or other nauſeous herbs, the farmer's hopes may ſtill be enhanced, and his apprehenſions diminiſhed; nay, perhaps, by attending to theſe particulars, the appearance of this fly among us, ſo far from injuring, may promote very materially the preſent ſtate of our agriculture. The predilection to *large*, inſtead of *rich* fields of wheat, will be gradually done away; the ſizes of farms will be diminiſhed—but the number of farmers will be increaſed, and our country brought much ſooner into that ſtate of cultivation, from which human labour will reap the moſt ample fruits of its exertions. So that, if the proſperity of a country conſiſts principally in the greater returns that the ſoil can make to human induſtry, why may not this inſect be directed, by kind Providence, to lead us to this point of national opulence?

P. S. Since writing the above, I have renewed my ſearching among the yellow-bearded wheat ſown in November, and cannot find in it any ſigns of the fly. Pieces of ſpring-wheat, of oats, and of rye, lying very near it, are all infected; and ſome common wheat, which is contiguous to it, is nearly deſtroyed. So that the *ſpring ravages* of the inſect, which have been ſo ſeverely felt by other kinds of grain, ſown even on a very rich ſoil, have not as yet reached this ſpecies of wheat. If other communications to the ſociety ſhould eſtabliſh the immunity of *this* wheat from the deſtruction of this inſect, they will greatly raiſe the ſpirits of the deſponding farmers in this quarter.

C. H. W.

June 14, 1792.

It has generally been conſidered as a fact, that, of the human race, more males than females are born into the world. The proportion commonly fixed on, is as thirteen to twelve. Hence a concluſive argument has been derived againſt polygamy. The larger number of males has been believed to be a wiſe appointment of Providence, to balance the deſtruction of the males in war, by ſea, and by other occupations more hazardous to life than the domeſtic employment of the female ſex. The following table, formed from the cenſus of the United States, in which the males and females are numbered in different columns, furniſhes a new proof of the truth of the common opinion, as it reſpects the United States:*

TABLE.

	Males.	Females.	Exceſs.	
Vermont - - - - -	44,763	40,505	4,258 †	Males.
New Hampſhire - - -	70,937	70,160	777	do.
Diſtrict of Maine ‡				
Maſſachuſetts - - - -	182,742	190,582	7,840	Females.
Rhode Iſland - - - -	31,818	32,652	834	do.
Connecticut - - -	114,926	117,448	2,522	do.
New York - - -	161,822	152,320	9,502	Males.
New Jerſey - - -	86,667	83,287	3,380	do.
Pennſylvania - - -	217,736	206,263	11,373	do.
Delaware - - -	23,926	22,384	1,540	do.
Maryland - - - -	107,254	101,395	5,859	do.
Virginia - - - -	227,071	215,046	12,025	do.
Kentucky - - - -	32,211	28,922	3,289	do.
North Carolina - - -	147,494	140,710	6,784	do.
South Carolina - - -	73,298	66,880	6,418	do.
Georgia - - - -	27,147	25,739	1,408	do.
Territory S. of Ohio - -	16,548	15,365	1,183	do.

It is remarkable, that the exceſs in all the States is on the ſide of males, except in Maſſachuſetts, Rhode Iſland, and Connecticut. In theſe States the females are conſiderably the moſt numerous. This difference is obviouſly to be aſcribed to the large migrations from all theſe States to Vermont, the northern and weſtern parts of New York, the territory N. W. of Ohio, Kentucky, Pennſylvania, and ſome to almoſt all the ſouthern States. A great proportion of theſe migrants were males; and while they have ſerved to increaſe the proportion of males in the States where they have ſettled, as is ſtrikingly the caſe in Vermont and Kentucky, to which the migrations have been moſt numerous, and where the males are to the females nearly as *ten* to *nine*, they have ſerved to leſſen the proportion of males in the States from whence they emigrated.

The number of ſlaves, in 1790, in all the States, was 697,697. The increaſe of this number ſince, owing to ſalutary laws, in ſeveral of the States, and the humane exer-

* Mr. Bruce, in his Travels, as we ſhall, in the ſecond part of this work more particularly relate, affirms, that in that tract of country from the Iſthmus of Suez to the Straits of Babelmandel, which contains the three Arabias, the proportion is fully *four* women to *one* man.

† In the columns of the cenſus, in which are noted *all other free perſons* and *ſlaves*, the males and females are not diſtinguiſhed, and are therefore not regarded in this table.

‡ The males and females are not diſtinguiſhed in the diſtrict of Main, in the late cenſus.

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tions which have been made in favour of their emancipation, has happily been ſmall, and probably will be leſs in future.

CHARACTER AND MANNERS.] Federal Americans, collected together from various countries, of different habits, formed under different governments, have yet to form their national character, or we may rather ſay, it is in a forming ſtate. They have not yet exiſted as a nation long enough for us to form an idea of what will be, in its maturity, its prominent features. Judging, however, from its preſent promiſing infancy, we are encouraged to hope, that, at ſome future period, not far diſtant, it will, in every point of view, be reſpectable.

Until the revolution, which was accompliſhed in 1783, Europeans were ſtrangely ignorant of America and its inhabitants. They concluded, that the new world *muſt* be inferior to the old. The Count de Buffon ſuppoſed, that the animals in this country were uniformly leſs than in Europe, and thence concluded, that, "on this ſide the Atlantic, there is a tendency in nature to belittle her productions." The Abbe Raynal, in a former edition of his works, ſuppoſed this *belittling* tendency, or influence, had its effects on the race of whites tranſplanted from Europe, and thence had the preſumption to aſſert, that "America had not yet produced one good poet, one able mathematician, one man of genius in a ſingle art or ſcience." Had the Abbe been juſtly informed reſpecting Americans, we preſume he would not have made an aſſertion ſo ungenerous and injurious to their genius and literary character. This aſſertion drew from Mr. Jefferſon the following reply:

"When we ſhall have exiſted as a people as long as the Greeks did before they produced a Homer, the Romans a Virgil, the French a Racine and Voltaire, the Engliſh a Shakeſpeare and Milton, ſhould this reproach be ſtill true, we will inquire from what unfriendly cauſes it has proceeded, that the other countries of Europe and quarters of the earth, ſhall not have inſcribed any name in the roll of poets. In war we have produced a WASHINGTON, whoſe memory will be adored while liberty ſhall have votaries, whoſe name will triumph over time, and will in future ages aſſume its juſt ſtation among the moſt celebrated worthies of the world, when that wretched philoſophy ſhall be forgotten, which would arrange him among the degeneracies of nature. In phyſics we have produced a FRANKLIN, than whom no one of the preſent age has made more important diſcoveries, nor has enriched philoſophy with more, or more ingenious ſolutions of the phænomena of nature. We have ſuppoſed Mr. RITTENHOUSE ſecond to no aſtronomer living: that in genius he muſt be the firſt, becauſe he is ſelf-taught. As an artiſt, he has exhibited as great proofs of mechanical genius as the world has ever produced.—He has not indeed made a world; but he has, by imitation, approached nearer its Maker than any man who has lived from the creation to this day. As in philoſophy and war, ſo in government, in oratory, in painting, in the plaſtic art, we might ſhew that America, though but a child of yeſterday, has already given hopeful proofs of genius, as well of the nobler kinds, which arouſe the beſt feelings of man, which call him into action, which ſubſtantiate his freedom, and conduct him to happineſs, as of the ſubordinate, which ſerve to amuſe him only. We therefore ſuppoſe, that this reproach is as unjuſt as it is unkind; and that, of the geniuſes which adorn the preſent age, America contributes its full ſhare. For comparing it with thoſe countries, where genius is moſt cultivated, where are the moſt excellent models for art, and ſcaffoldings for the attainment of ſcience, as France and England, for inſtance, we calculate thus: the United States contain three millions of inhabitants, France twenty millions, and the Britiſh iſlands ten. We produce a Waſhington, a Franklin, a Rittenhouſe. France then ſhould have half a dozen in each of theſe lines,

and Great Britain half that number, equally eminent. It may be true that France has; we are but juſt becoming acquainted with her, and our acquaintance ſo far gives us high ideas of the genius of her inhabitants. It would be injuring too many of them to name particularly a Voltaire, a Buffon, the conſtellation of Encyclopediſts, the Abbe Raynal himſelf, &c. &c. We therefore have reaſon to believe ſhe can produce her full quota of genius."

The two late important revolutions in America, which have been ſcarcely exceeded ſince the memory of man, I mean that of the declaration and eſtabliſhment of independence, and that of the adoption of a new form of government without bloodſhed, have called to hiſtoric fame many noble and diſtinguiſhed characters who might otherwiſe have ſlept in oblivion.

But while we exhibit the fair ſide of the character of Federal Americans, we would not be thought blind to their faults.

An European writer has juſtly obſerved, that "if there be an object truly ridiculous in nature, it is an American patriot, ſigning reſolutions of independency with one hand, and with the other brandiſhing a whip over his affrighted ſlaves."

Much has been written to ſhew the injuſtice and iniquity of enſlaving the Africans; ſo much, as to render it unneceſſary here to ſay any thing on that part of the ſubject. We cannot, however, forbear introducing a few obſervations reſpecting the influence of ſlavery upon policy, morals, and manners. From calculations on the ſubject, it has been found, that the expence of maintaining a ſlave, eſpecially if the purchaſe money be included, is much greater than that of maintaining a free man: this, however, is diſputed by ſome; but ſuppoſe the expence in both caſes be equal, it is certain that the labour of the free man, influenced by the powerful motive of gain, is, at leaſt, twice as profitable to the employer as that of the ſlave. Beſides, ſlavery is the bane of induſtry. It renders labour, among the whites, not only unfaſhionable, but diſreputable. Induſtry is the offſpring of neceſſity rather than of choice. Slavery precludes this neceſſity; and indolence, which ſtrikes at the root of all ſocial and political happineſs, is the unhappy conſequence. Theſe obſervations, without adding any thing upon the injuſtice of the practice, ſhew that ſlavery is impolitic.

Its influence on manners and morals is equally pernicious. The negro wenches, in many inſtances, are nurſes to their miſtreſſes children. The infant babe, as ſoon as it is born, is delivered to its black nurſe, and perhaps ſeldom or never taſtes a drop of its mother's milk The children, by being brought up, and conſtantly aſſociating with the negroes, too often imbibe their low ideas, and vitiated manners and morals, and contract a *negroiſh* kind of accent and dialect, which they often carry with them through life.

To theſe I ſhall add the obſervations of a native * of a ſtate which contains a greater number of ſlaves than any of the others. Although his obſervations upon the influence of ſlavery were intended for a particular ſtate, they will apply equally well to all places where this pernicious practice in any conſiderable degree prevails.

"There muſt doubtleſs," he obſerves, "be an unhappy influence on the manners of our people, produced by the exiſtence of ſlavery among us. The whole commerce between maſter and ſlave is a perpetual exerciſe of the moſt boiſterous paſſions, the moſt unremitting deſpotiſm on the one part, and degrading ſubmiſſions on the other. Our children ſee this, and learn to imitate it; for man is an imitative animal. This quality is the germ of all education in him. From his cradle to his grave, he is learning to

* Mr. Jefferſon.

do what he ſees others do. If a parent could find no motive either in his philanthropy or his ſelf-love, for reſtraining the intemperance of paſſion towards his ſlave, it ſhould always be a ſufficient one that his child is preſent. But generally it is not ſufficient. The parent ſtorms, the child looks on, catches the lineaments of wrath, puts on the ſame airs in the circle of ſmaller ſlaves, gives a looſe to his worſt of paſſions, and thus nurſed, educated, and daily exerciſed in tyranny, cannot but be ſtamped by it with odious peculiarities. The man muſt be a prodigy who can retain his manners and morals undepraved by ſuch circumſtances. And with what execration ſhould the ſtateſman be loaded, who, permitting one half of the citizens thus to trample on the rights of the other, transforms thoſe into deſpots, and theſe into enemies; deſtroys the morals of the one part, and the *amor patriæ* of the other. For if a ſlave can have a country in this world, it muſt be any other in preference to that in which he is born to live and labour for another: in which he muſt lock up the faculties of his nature, contribute as far as depends on his individual endeavours to the evaniſhment of the human race, or entail his own miſerable condition on the endleſs generations proceeding from him. With the morals of the people, their induſtry alſo is deſtroyed. For in a warm climate, no man will labour for himſelf who can make another labour for him. This is ſo true, that of the proprietors of ſlaves a very ſmall proportion indeed are ever ſeen to labour. And can the liberties of a nation be thought ſecure when we have removed their only firm baſis, a conviction in the minds of the people that theſe liberties are the gift of God? That they are not to be violated but with his wrath? Indeed I tremble for my country when I reflect that God is juſt: that his juſtice cannot ſleep for ever: that conſidering numbers, nature, and natural means only, a revolution of the wheel of fortune, an exchange of ſituation, is among poſſible events: that it may become probable by ſupernatural interference!—The Almighty has no attribute which can take ſide with us in ſuch a conteſt. But it is impoſſible to be temperate and to purſue this ſubject through the various conſiderations of policy, of morals, of hiſtory, natural and civil. We muſt be contented to hope they will force their way into every one's mind. I think a change already perceptible, ſince the origin of the preſent revolution. The ſpirit of the maſter is abating, that of the ſlave riſing from the duſt, his condition mollifying, the way I hope preparing, under the auſpices of heaven, for a total emancipation, and that this is diſpoſed, in the order of events, to be with the conſent of their maſters, rather than by their extirpation.

Under the Federal government, from the meaſures already adopted, we have reaſon to believe that all ſlaves in the United States, will in time be emancipated, in a manner moſt conſiſtent with their own happineſs, and the true intereſt of their proprietors. Whether this will be effected by tranſporting them back to Africa; or by colonizing them in ſome part of our own territory, and extending to them our alliance and protection, until they ſhall have acquired ſtrength ſufficient for their own defence; or by incorporation with the whites; or in ſome other way, remains to be determined.

In the middle and northern States, there are comparatively but few ſlaves; and of courſe there is leſs difficulty in giving them their freedom. In Maſſachuſetts alone, and we mention it to their diſtinguiſhed honour, there are NONE. Societies for the manumiſſion of ſlaves have been inſtituted in Philadelphia and New York, and other places, and laws have been enacted, and other meaſures taken, in the New England States, to accompliſh the ſame purpoſe. The FRIENDS, (commonly called Quakers) have evinced the propriety of their name, by their goodneſs in originating, and their vigorous exertions in executing, this truly humane and benevolent deſign.

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The Engliſh Language is univerſally ſpoken in the United States, and in it buſineſs is tranſacted, and the records are kept. It is ſpoken with great purity, and pronounced with propriety in New England, by perſons of education; and, excepting ſome corruptions in pronunciation, by all ranks of people. In the middle and ſouthern States, where they have had a great influx of foreigners, the language, in many inſtances, is corrupted, eſpecially in pronunciation. Attempts are making to introduce an uniformity of pronunciation throughout the States, which for political, as well as other reaſons, it is hoped will meet the approbation and encouragement of all literary and influential characters.

Intermingled with the Americans, are the Dutch, Scotch, Iriſh, French, Germans, Swedes, and Jews; all theſe, except the Scotch and Iriſh, retain, in a greater or leſs degree, their native language, in which they perform their public worſhip, converſe and tranſact their buſineſs with each other.

The time, however, is anticipated, when all improper diſtinctions ſhall be aboliſhed; and when the language, manners, cuſtoms, political and religious ſentiments of the mixed maſs of people who inhabit the United States, ſhall have become ſo aſſimilated, as that all nominal diſtinctions ſhall be loſt in the general and honourable name of AMERICANS.

GOVERNMENT.] Until the fourth of July, 1776, the preſent United States were Britiſh colonies. On that memorable day, the Repreſentatives of the United States of America, in Congreſs aſſembled, made a ſolemn declaration, in which they aſſigned their reaſons for withdrawing their allegiance from the King of Great Britain. Appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of their intentions, they did, in the name and by the authority of the good people of the colonies, ſolemnly publiſh and declare, That theſe United Colonies were, and of right ought to be, FREE and INDEPENDENT States; that they were abſolved from all allegiance to the Britiſh crown, and that all political connection between them and Great Britain was, and ought to be, totally diſſolved; and that as Free and Independent States, they had full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, eſtabliſh commerce, and do all other acts and things which Independent States may of right do. For the ſupport of this declaration, with a firm reliance on the protection of divine Providence, the delegates then in Congreſs, fifty-five in number, mutually pledged to each other their lives, their fortunes, and their ſacred honour.

At the ſame time they publiſhed articles of Confederation and Perpetual Union between the States, in which they took the ſtyle of "THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA," and agreed, that each State ſhould retain its ſovereignty, freedom, and independence, and every power, juriſdiction, and right not expreſsly delegated to Congreſs by the confederation. By theſe articles, the thirteen United States ſeverally entered into a firm league of friendſhip with each other for their common defence, the ſecurity of their liberties, and their mutual and general welfare, and bound themſelves to aſſiſt each other, againſt all force offered to, or attacks that might be made upon all, or any of them, on account of religion, ſovereignty, commerce, or any other pretence whatever. But for the more convenient management of the general intereſts of the United States, it was determined, that Delegates ſhould be annually appointed, in ſuch manner as the Legiſlature of each State ſhould direct, to meet in Congreſs the firſt Monday in November of every year, with a power reſerved to each State to recall its delegates, or any of them, at any time within the year, and to ſend others in their ſtead for the remainder of the year. No State was to be repreſented in Congreſs by leſs than two, or more than ſeven members; and no perſon could be a delegate for more than three years, in any

any term of ſix years, nor was any perſon, being a delegate, capable of holding any office under the United States, for which he, or any other for his benefit, ſhould receive any ſalary, fees, or emolument of any kind. In determining queſtions in Congreſs, each State was to have one vote. Every State was bound to abide by the determinations of Congreſs in all queſtions which were ſubmitted to them by the confederation. The articles of confederation were to be invariably obſerved by every State, and the Union to be perpetual: nor was any alteration at any time hereafter to be made in any of the articles, unleſs ſuch alterations be agreed to in Congreſs, and be afterwards confirmed by the legiſlatures of every State. The articles of confederation were ratified by Congreſs, *July* 9th, 1778.

Theſe articles of confederation being found inadequate to the purpoſes of a federal government, for reaſons hereafter mentioned, delegates were choſen in each of the United States, to meet and fix upon the neceſſary amendments. They accordingly met in convention at Philadelphia, in the ſummer of 1787, and agreed to propoſe the following conſtitution for the conſideration of their conſtituents:

CONSTITUTION.] WE, THE PEOPLE of the United States, in order to form a more perfect union, eſtabliſh juſtice, inſure domeſtic tranquillity, provide for the common defence, promote the general welfare, and ſecure the bleſſings of liberty to ourſelves and our poſterity, do ordain and eſtabliſh this Conſtitution for the United States of America.

ARTICLE I.—*Sect.* 1. ALL legiſlative powers herein granted ſhall be veſted in a Congreſs of the United States, which ſhall conſiſt of a Senate and Houſe of Repreſentatives.

Sect. 2. The Houſe of Repreſentatives ſhall be compoſed of members choſen every ſecond year by the people of the ſeveral States, and the electors in each State ſhall have the qualifications requiſite for electors of the moſt numerous branch of the State legiſlature.

No perſon ſhall be a repreſentative who ſhall not have attained to the age of twenty-five years, and been ſeven years a citizen of the United States, and who ſhall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State in which he ſhall be choſen.

Repreſentatives and direct taxes ſhall be apportioned among the ſeveral States which may be included within this Union, according to their reſpective numbers, which ſhall be determined by adding to the whole number of free perſons, including thoſe bound to ſervice for a term of years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three fifths of all other perſons. The actual enumeration ſhall be made within three years after the firſt meeting of the Congreſs of the United States, and within every ſubſequent term of ten years, in ſuch manner as they ſhall by law direct. The number of repreſentatives ſhall not exceed one for every thirty thouſand, but each State ſhall have at leaſt one repreſentative; and, until ſuch enumeration ſhall be made, the State of New Hampſhire ſhall be entitled to chooſe three, Maſſachuſetts eight, Rhode Iſland and Providence Plantations one, Connecticut five, New York ſix, New Jerſy four, Pennſylvania eight, Delaware one, Maryland ſix, Virginia ten, North Carolina five, South Carolina five, and Georgia three.

When vacancies happen in the repreſentation from any State, the executive authority thereof ſhall iſſue writs of election to fill ſuch vacancies.

The Houſe of Repreſentatives ſhall chooſe their Speaker and other officers; and ſhall have the ſole power of impeachment.

Sect. 3. The Senate of the United States ſhall be compoſed of two ſenators from each State, choſen by the legiſlature thereof, for ſix years; and each ſenator ſhall have one vote.

Immediately after they ſhall be aſſembled, in conſequence of the firſt election, they ſhall be divided as equally as may be into three claſſes. The ſeats of the ſenators of the firſt claſs ſhall be vacated at the expiration of the ſecond year; of the ſecond claſs at the expiration of the fourth year; and of the third claſs at the expiration of the ſixth year, ſo that one third may be choſen every ſecond year; and if vacancies happen by reſignation, or otherwiſe, during the receſs of the legiſlature of any State, the executive thereof may make temporary appointments until the next meeting of the legiſlature, which ſhall then fill ſuch vacancies.

No perſon ſhall be a ſenator who ſhall not have attained to the age of thirty years, and been nine years a citizen of the United States, and who ſhall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State for which he ſhall be choſen.

The Vice-Preſident of the United States ſhall be Preſident of the Senate, but ſhall have no vote, unleſs they be equally divided.

The Senate ſhall chooſe their other officers, and alſo a Preſident pro tempore in the abſence of the Vice-Preſident, or when he ſhall exerciſe the office of Preſident of the United States.

The Senate ſhall have the ſole power to try all impeachments. When ſitting for that purpoſe, they ſhall be on oath or affirmation. When the Preſident of the United States is tried, the chief juſtice ſhall preſide: and no perſon ſhall be convicted without the concurrence of two thirds of the members preſent.

Judgement in caſes of impeachment ſhall not extend further than to removal from office, and diſqualification to hold and enjoy any office of honour, truſt, or profit, under the United States; but the party convicted ſhall nevertheleſs be liable and ſubject to indictment, trial, judgement, and puniſhment, according to law.

Sect. 4. The times, places, and manner of holding elections for ſenators and repreſentatives, ſhall be preſcribed in each State by the legiſlature thereof; but the Congreſs may at any time by law make or alter ſuch regulations, except as to the places of chuſing ſenators.

The Congreſs ſhall aſſemble at leaſt once in every year, and ſuch meeting ſhall be on the firſt Monday in December, unleſs they ſhall by law appoint a different day.

Sect. 5. Each houſe ſhall be the judge of the elections, returns, and qualifications of its own members, and a majority of each ſhall conſtitute a quorum to do buſineſs; but a ſmaller number may adjourn from day to day, and may be authoriſed to compel the attendance of abſent members, in ſuch a manner, and under ſuch penalties as each houſe may provide.

Each houſe may determine the rules of its proceedings, puniſh its members for diſorderly behaviour, and, with the concurrence of two thirds, expel a member.

Each houſe ſhall keep a journal of its proceedings, and from time to time publiſh the ſame, excepting ſuch parts as may in their judgement require ſecrecy; and the yeas and nays of the members of either houſe on any queſtion ſhall, at the deſire of one fifth of thoſe preſent, be entered on the journal.

Neither houſe, during the ſeſſion of Congreſs, ſhall, without the conſent of the other, adjourn for more than three days, nor to any other place than that in which the two houſes ſhall be ſitting.

Sect. 6. The Senators and Repreſentatives ſhall receive a compenſation for their ſervices, to be aſcertained by law, and paid out of the treaſury of the United States. They ſhall, in all caſes, except treaſon, felony, and breach of the peace, be privileged from arreſt during their attendance at the ſeſſion of their reſpective houſes, and in going

to

to and returning from the ſame; and for any ſpeech or debate in either houſe, they ſhall not be queſtioned in any other place.

No ſenator or repreſentative ſhall, during the time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil office under the authority of the United States, which ſhall have been created, or the emoluments whereof ſhall have been increaſed during ſuch time; and no perſon holding any office under the United States ſhall be a member of either Houſe during his continuance in office.

Sect. 7. All bills for raiſing revenue ſhall originate in the Houſe of Repreſentatives; but the Senate may propoſe or concur with amendments, as on other bills.

Every bill which ſhall have paſſed the Houſe of Repreſentatives and the Senate, ſhall, before it becomes a law, be preſented to the Preſident of the United States; if he approve, he ſhall ſign it, but if not, he ſhall return it, with his objections, to that houſe in which it ſhall have originated, who ſhall enter the objections at large on their journal, and proceed to re-conſider it. If, after ſuch re-conſideration, two thirds of that houſe ſhall agree to paſs the bill, it ſhall be ſent, together with the objections, to the other houſe, by which it ſhall likewiſe be re-conſidered, and if approved by two thirds of that houſe, it ſhall become a law. But in all ſuch caſes the votes of both houſes ſhall be determined by yeas and nays, and the names of the perſons voting for and againſt the bill ſhall be entered on the journal of each houſe reſpectively. If any bill ſhall not be returned by the Preſident within ten days, (Sundays excepted) after it ſhall have been preſented to him, the ſame ſhall be a law, in like manner as if he had ſigned it, unleſs the Congreſs, by their adjournment, prevent its return, in which caſe it ſhall not be a law.

Every order, reſolution, or vote, to which the concurrence of the Senate and Houſe of Repreſentatives may be neceſſary (except on a queſtion of adjournment) ſhall be preſented to the Preſident of the United States; and before the ſame ſhall take effect, ſhall be approved by him, or, being diſapproved by him, ſhall be re-paſſed by two thirds of the Senate and Houſe of Repreſentatives, according to the rules and limitations preſcribed in the caſe of a bill.

Sect. 8. The Congreſs ſhall have power

To lay and collect taxes, duties, impoſts, and exciſes; to pay the debts and provide for the common defence and general welfare of the United States; but all duties, impoſts, and exciſes ſhall be uniform throughout the United States;

To borrow money on the credit of the United States;

To regulate commerce with foreign nations, and among the ſeveral States, and with the Indian tribes;

To eſtabliſh an uniform rule of naturalization, and uniform laws on the ſubject of bankruptcies throughout the United States;

To coin money, regulate the value thereof, and of foreign coin, and fix the ſtandard of weights and meaſures;

To provide for the puniſhment of counterfeiting the ſecurities and current coin of the United States;

To eſtabliſh poſt offices and poſt roads;

To promote the progreſs of ſcience and uſeful arts, by ſecuring for limited times, to authors and inventors, the excluſive right to their reſpective writings and diſcoveries;

To conſtitute tribunals inferior to the ſupreme court;

To define and puniſh piracies and felonies committed on the high ſeas, and offences againſt the law of nations;

To declare war, grant letters of marque and repriſal, and make rules concerning captures on land and water;

To raiſe and ſupport armies, but no appropriation of money to that uſe ſhall be for a longer term than two years;

To provide and maintain a navy;

To make rules for the government and regulation of the land and naval forces;

To provide for calling forth the militia to execute the laws of the union, ſuppreſs inſurrections, and repel invaſions;

To provide for organizing, arming, and diſciplining the militia, and for governing ſuch part of them as may be employed in the ſervice of the United States, reſerving to the States reſpectively, the appointment of the officers, and the authority of training the militia according to the diſcipline preſcribed by Congreſs;

To exerciſe excluſive legiſlation in all caſes whatſoever, over ſuch diſtrict (not exceeding ten miles ſquare) as may by ceſſion of particular States, and the acceptance of Congreſs, become the ſeat of government of the United States; and to exerciſe like authority over all places purchaſed by the conſent of the legiſlature of the State in which the ſame ſhall be, for the erection of forts, magazines, arſenals, dock-yards, and other needful buildings:—And

To make all laws which ſhall be neceſſary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers, and all other powers veſted by this conſtitution in the government of the United States, or in any department or officer thereof.

Sect. 9. The migration or importation of ſuch perſons as any of the States now exiſting ſhall think proper to admit, ſhall not be prohibited by the Congreſs prior to the year one thouſand eight hundred and eight, but a tax or duty may be impoſed on ſuch importation, not exceeding ten dollars for each perſon.

The privilege of the writ of habeas corpus ſhall not be ſuſpended, unleſs when in caſes of rebellion or invaſion the public ſafety may require it.

No bill of attainder or ex poſt facto law ſhall be paſſed.

No capitation, or other direct tax, ſhall be laid, unleſs in proportion to the cenſus or enumeration herein before directed to be taken.

No tax or duty ſhall be laid on articles exported from any State.—No preference ſhall be given by any regulation of commerce or revenue to the ports of one State over thoſe of another: nor ſhall veſſels bound to or from one State, be obliged to enter, clear, or pay duties in another.

No money ſhall be drawn from the treaſury, but in conſequence of appropriations made by law; and a regular ſtatement and account of the receipts and expenditures of all public money ſhall be publiſhed from time to time.

No title of nobility ſhall be granted by the United States.—And no perſon holding any office of profit or truſt under them, ſhall, without the conſent of Congreſs, accept of any preſent, emolument, office, or title of any kind whatever, from any king, prince, or foreign ſtate.

Sect. 10. No State ſhall enter into any treaty, alliance, or confederation; grant letters of marque and repriſal; coin money; emit bills of credit; make any thing but gold and ſilver coin a tender in payment of debts; paſs any bill of attainder, ex poſt facto law, or law impairing the obligation of contracts, or grant any title of nobility.

No State ſhall, without the conſent of the Congreſs, lay any impoſts or duties on imports or exports, except what may be abſolutely neceſſary for executing its inſpection laws; and the net produce of all duties and impoſts, laid by any State on imports or exports,

exports, ſhall be for the uſe of the Treaſury of the United States; and all ſuch laws ſhall be ſubject to the reviſion and controul of the Congreſs. No State ſhall, without the conſent of Congreſs, lay any duty of tonnage, keep troops, or ſhips of war, in time of peace, enter into any agreement or compact with another State, or with a foreign power, or engage in war, unleſs actually invaded, or in ſuch imminent danger as will not admit of delay.

ART. II.—*Sect.* 1. The executive power ſhall be veſted in a Preſident of the United States of America. He ſhall hold his office during the term of four years, and, together with the Vice-Preſident, choſen for the ſame term, be elected as follows:

Each State ſhall appoint, in ſuch manner as the legiſlature thereof may direct, a number of electors, equal to the whole number of ſenators and repreſentatives to which the State may be intitled in the Congreſs: but no ſenator or repreſentative, or perſon holding an office of truſt or profit under the United States, ſhall be appointed an elector.

The electors ſhall meet in their reſpective States, and vote by ballot for two perſons, of whom one at leaſt ſhall not be an inhabitant of the ſame State with themſelves. And they ſhall make a liſt of all the perſons voted for, and of the number of votes for each; which liſt they ſhall ſign and certify, and tranſmit, ſealed, to the ſeat of the government of the United States, directed to the Preſident of the Senate. The Preſident of the Senate ſhall, in the preſence of the Senate and Houſe of Repreſentatives, open all the certificates, and the votes ſhall then be counted. The perſon having the greateſt number of votes ſhall be the Preſident, if ſuch number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if there be more than one who have ſuch majority, and have an equal number of votes, then the Houſe of Repreſentatives ſhall immediately chooſe by ballot one of them for Preſident; and if no perſon have a majority, then from the five higheſt on the liſt, the ſaid houſe ſhall in like manner chooſe the Preſident. But in chooſing the Preſident, the votes ſhall be taken by States, the repreſentations from each State having one vote; a quorum for this purpoſe ſhall conſiſt of a member or members from two thirds of the States, and a majority of all the States ſhall be neceſſary to a choice. In every caſe, after the choice of the Preſident, the perſon having the greateſt number of votes of the electors ſhall be the Vice-Preſident. But if there ſhould remain two or more who have equal votes, the Senate ſhall chooſe from them by ballot the Vice-Preſident.

The Congreſs may determine the time of chooſing the electors, and the day on which they ſhall give their votes; which day ſhall be the ſame throughout the United States.

No perſon, except a natural-born citizen, or a citizen of the United States at the time of the adoption of this conſtitution, ſhall be eligible to the office of Preſident; neither ſhall any perſon be eligible to that office who ſhall not have attained to the age of thirty-five years, and been fourteen years a reſident within the United States.

In caſe of the removal of the Preſident from office, or of his death, reſignation, or inability to diſcharge the powers and duties of the ſaid office, the ſame ſhall devolve on the Vice-Preſident, and the Congreſs may by law provide for the caſe of removal, death, reſignation, or inability, both of the Preſident and Vice-Preſident, declaring what officer ſhall then act as Preſident, and ſuch officer ſhall act accordingly, until the diſability be removed, or a Preſident ſhall be elected.

The President shall, at stated times, receive for his services, a compensation, which shall neither be increased or diminished during the period for which he shall have been elected, and he shall not receive within that period any other emolument from the United States, or any of them.

Before he enters on the execution of his office, he shall take the following oath or affirmation:

"I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully execute the office of President of the United States, and will, to the best of my ability, preserve, protect, and defend the constitution of the United States."

Sect. 2. The President shall be commander in chief of the army and navy of the United States, and of the militia of the several States, when called into the actual service of the United States; he may require the opinion, in writing, of the principal officer in each of the executive departments, upon any subject relating to the duties of their respective offices, and he shall have power to grant reprieves and pardons for offences against the United States, except in cases of impeachment.

He shall have power, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, to make treaties, provided two thirds of the senators present concur; and he shall nominate, and by and with the advice and consent of the Senate shall appoint ambassadors, other public ministers, and consuls, judges of the supreme court, and all other officers of the United States, whose appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by law. But the Congress may by law vest the appointment of such inferior officers, as they think proper, in the President alone, in the courts of law, or in the heads of departments.

The President shall have power to fill up all vacancies that may happen during the recess of the senate, by granting commissions which shall expire at the end of their next session.

Sect. 3. He shall from time to time give to the Congress information of the state of the union, and recommend to their consideration such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient; he may, on extraordinary occasions, convene both houses, or either of them, and in case of disagreement between them, with respect to the time of adjournment, he may adjourn them to such time as he shall think proper; he shall receive ambassadors and other public ministers; he shall take care that the laws be faithfully executed, and shall commission all the officers of the United States.

Sect. 4. The President, Vice-president, and all civil officers of the United States, shall be removed from office on impeachment for, and conviction of, treason, bribery, or other high crimes and misdemeanors.

ART. III.—*Sect.* 1. The judicial power of the United States shall be vested in one supreme court, and in such inferior courts as the Congress may from time to time ordain and establish. The judges, both of the supreme and inferior courts, shall hold their offices during good behaviour, and shall, at stated times, receive for their services, a compensation, which shall not be diminished during their continuance in office.

Sect. 2. The judicial power shall extend to all cases, in law and equity, arising under this constitution, the laws of the United States, and treaties made, or which shall be made, under their authority; to all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers, and consuls; to all cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction; to controversies to which the United States shall be a party; to controversies between two or more States, between a State and citizens of another State, between citizens of different States, between citizens of the same State claiming lands under grants of different

ferent States, and between a State, or the citizens thereof, and foreign ſtates, citizens, or ſubjects.

In all caſes affecting ambaſſadors, other public miniſters, and conſuls, and thoſe in which a State ſhall be party, the ſupreme court ſhall have original juriſdiction. In all the other caſes before mentioned, the ſupreme court ſhall have appellate juriſdiction, both as to law and fact, with ſuch exceptions, and under ſuch regulations as the Congreſs ſhall make.

The trial of all crimes, except in caſes of impeachment, ſhall be by jury; and ſuch trial ſhall be held in the State where the ſaid crime ſhall have been committed; but when not committed within any State, the trial ſhall be at ſuch place or places as the Congreſs may by law have directed.

Sect. 3. Treaſon againſt the United States ſhall conſiſt only in levying war againſt them, or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort. No perſon ſhall be convicted of treaſon unleſs on the teſtimony of two witneſſes to the ſame overt act, or on confeſſion in open court.

The Congreſs ſhall have power to declare the puniſhment of treaſon, but no attainder of treaſon ſhall work corruption of blood, or forfeiture, except during the life of the perſon attainted.

ART. IV.—*Sect.* 1. Full faith and credit ſhall be given in each State to the public acts, records, and judicial proceedings of every other State. And the Congreſs may by general laws preſcribe the manner in which ſuch acts, records, and proceedings ſhall be proved, and the effect thereof.

Sect. 2. The citizens of each State ſhall be entitled to all privileges and immunities of citizens in the ſeveral States.

A perſon charged in any State with treaſon, felony, or other crime, who ſhall flee from juſtice, and be found in another State, ſhall, on demand of the executive authority of the State from which he fled, be delivered up, to be removed to the State having juriſdiction of the crime.

No perſon held to ſervice or labour in one State, under the laws thereof, eſcaping into another, ſhall, in conſequence of any law or regulation therein, be diſcharged from ſuch ſervice or labour, but ſhall be delivered up on claim of the party to whom ſuch ſervice or labour may be due.

Sect. 3. New States may be admitted by the Congreſs into this union, but no new State ſhall be formed or erected within the juriſdiction of any other State; nor any State be formed by the junction of two or more States, or parts of States, without the conſent of the legiſlatures of the States concerned as well as of the Congreſs.

The Congreſs ſhall have power to diſpoſe of and make all needful rules and regulations reſpecting the territory or other property belonging to the United States; and nothing in this conſtitution ſhall be ſo conſtrued as to prejudice any claims of the United States, or of any particular State.

Sect. 4. The United States ſhall guarantee to every State in this union a republican form of government, and ſhall protect each of them againſt invaſion; and on application of the legiſlature, or of the executive (when the legiſlature cannot be convened) againſt domeſtic violence.

ART. V.—The Congreſs, whenever two thirds of both houſes ſhall deem it neceſſary, ſhall propoſe amendments to this conſtitution, or, on the application of the legiſlatures of two thirds of the ſeveral States, ſhall call a convention for propoſing amendments, which, in either caſe, ſhall be valid to all intents and purpoſes, as part of this conſtitution, when ratified by the legiſlatures of three fourths of the ſeveral States,

States, or by conventions in three fourths thereof, as the one or the other mode of ratification may be propoſed by the Congreſs: provided, that no amendment which may be made prior to the year one thouſand eight hundred and eight, ſhall in any manner affect the firſt and fourth clauſes in the ninth ſection of the firſt article; and that no State, without its conſent, ſhall be deprived of its equal ſuffrage in the Senate.

ART. VI.—All debts contracted, and engagements entered into before the adoption of this conſtitution, ſhall be as valid againſt the United States under this conſtitution, as under the confederation.

This conſtitution, and the laws of the United States which ſhall be made in purſuance thereof; and all treaties made, or which ſhall be made, under the authority of the United States, ſhall be the ſupreme law of the land; and the judges in every State ſhall be bound thereby, any thing in the conſtitution or laws of any State to the contrary notwithſtanding.

The Senators and Repreſentatives before mentioned, and the Members of the ſeveral State Legiſlatures, and all Executive and Judicial Officers, both of the United States and of the ſeveral States, ſhall be bound by oath or affirmation to ſupport this conſtitution; but no religious teſt ſhall ever be required as a qualification to any office or public truſt under the United States.

ART. VII.—The ratification of the conventions of nine States ſhall be ſufficient for the eſtabliſhment of this conſtituion between the States ſo ratifying the ſame.

DONE in Convention, by the unanimous conſent of the States preſent, the ſeventeenth day of September, in the year of our Lord One Thouſand Seven Hundred and Eighty-ſeven, and of the Independence of the United States of America the Twelfth. In Witneſs whereof, we have hereunto ſubſcribed our names.

GEORGE WASHINGTON, *Preſident.*

Signed alſo by all the Delegates which were preſent from twelve States.

Atteſt. WILLIAM JACKSON, *Secretary.*

In CONVENTION, *Monday, September* 17, 1787.

PRESENT,

The States of New Hampſhire, Maſſachuſetts, Connecticut, Mr. Hamilton from New York, New Jerſey, Pennſylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia.

RESOLVED, That the preceding conſtitution be laid before the United States in Congreſs aſſembled, and that it is the opinion of this Convention, that it ſhould afterwards be ſubmitted to a Convention of Delegates, choſen in each State by the people thereof, under the recommendation of its legiſlature, for their aſſent and ratification; and that each Convention aſſenting to, and ratifying the ſame, ſhould give notice thereof to the United States in Congreſs aſſembled.

Reſolved, That it is the opinion of this Convention, that as ſoon as the conventions of nine States ſhall have ratified this conſtitution, the United States in Congreſs aſſembled ſhould fix a day on which electors ſhould be appointed by the States which ſhall have ratified the ſame, and a day on which the electors ſhould aſſemble to vote for the Preſident, and the time and place for commencing proceedings under this Conſtitution. That after ſuch publication, the electors ſhould be appointed, and the ſenators and repreſentatives elected: that the electors ſhould meet on the day fixed for

for the election of the president, and ſhould tranſmit their votes certified, ſigned, ſealed, and directed, as the conſtitution requires, to the Secretary of the United States in Congreſs aſſembled; that the ſenators and repreſentatives ſhould convene at the time and place aſſigned; that the ſenators ſhould appoint a preſident of the ſenate, for the ſole purpoſe of receiving, opening, and counting the votes for preſident; and, that after he ſhall be choſen, the Congreſs, together with the Preſident, ſhould, without delay, proceed to execute this conſtitution.

By the unanimous order of the Convention,

GEORGE WASHINGTON, *Preſident.*
WILLIAM JACKSON, *Secretary.*

In CONVENTION, September 17, 1787.

SIR,

WE have now the honour to ſubmit to the conſideration of the United States in Congreſs aſſembled, that conſtitution which has appeared to us the moſt adviſeable.

The friends of our country have long ſeen and deſired, that the power of making war, peace, and treaties, that of levying money and regulating commerce, and the correſpondent executive and judicial authorities, ſhould be fully and effectually veſted in the general government of the union; but the impropriety of delegating ſuch extenſive truſt to one body of men is evident. Hence reſults the neceſſity of a different organization.

It is obviouſly impracticable, in the federal government of theſe States, to ſecure all rights of independent ſovereignty to each, and yet provide for the intereſt and ſafety of all. Individuals entering into ſociety muſt give up a ſhare of liberty to preſerve the reſt. The magnitude of the ſacrifice muſt depend as well on ſituation and circumſtance, as on the object to be attained. It is at all times difficult to draw with preciſion the line between thoſe rights which muſt be ſurrendered, and thoſe which may be reſerved; and on the preſent occaſion this difficulty was increaſed by a difference among the ſeveral States as to their ſituation, extent, habits, and particular intereſts.

In all our deliberations on this ſubject, we kept ſteadily in our view, that which appears to us the greateſt intereſt of every true American, the conſolidation of our union, in which is involved our proſperity, felicity, ſafety, perhaps our national exiſtence. This important conſideration, ſeriouſly and deeply impreſſed on our minds, led each ſtate in the convention to be leſs rigid on points of inferior magnitude, than might have been otherwiſe expected; and thus the conſtitution, which we now preſent, is the reſult of a ſpirit of amity, and of that mutual deference and conceſſion which the peculiarity of our political ſituation rendered indiſpenſable.

That it will meet the full and entire approbation of every State is not perhaps to be expected: but each will doubtleſs conſider, that had her intereſts been alone conſulted, the conſequences might have been particularly diſagreeable or injurious to others: that it is liable to as few exceptions as could reaſonably have been expected, we hope and believe: that it may promote the laſting welfare of that country ſo dear to us all, and ſecure her freedom and happineſs, is our moſt ardent wiſh.

With great reſpect, we have the honour to be, Sir, your Excellency's moſt obedient, and humble ſervants,

GEORGE WASHINGTON, *Preſident.*

By unanimous order of the Convention.

His Excellency the Preſident of the Congreſs.

The conventions of a number of the States having at the time of their adopting the conſtitution expreſſed a deſire, in order to prevent miſconſtruction or abuſe of its powers, that further declaratory and reſtrictive clauſes ſhould be added: and as extending the ground of public confidence in the government will beſt enſure the beneficent ends of its inſtitution,

Reſolved by the Senate and Houſe of Repreſentatives of the United States of America in Congreſs aſſembled, two-thirds of both houſes concurring, That the following articles be propoſed to the legiſlatures of the ſeveral States, as amendments to the conſtitution of the United States, all or any of which articles, when ratified by three-fourths of the ſaid legiſlatures, to be valid to all intents and purpoſes, as part of the ſaid conſtitution: viz.

Articles in addition to, and amendment of, the conſtitution of the United States of America, propoſed by Congreſs, and ratified by the legiſlatures of the ſeveral States, purſuant to the fifth article of the original conſtitution.

ART. I.—After the firſt enumeration required by the firſt article of the conſtitution, there ſhall be one repreſentative for every thirty thouſand, until the number ſhall amount to one hundred, after which the proportion ſhall be ſo regulated by Congreſs, that there ſhall be not leſs than one hundred repreſentatives, nor leſs than one repreſentative for every forty thouſand perſons, until the number of repreſentatives ſhall amount to two hundred, after which the proportion ſhall be ſo regulated by Congreſs, that there ſhall not be leſs than two hundred repreſentatives, nor more than one repreſentative for every fifty thouſand perſons.

ART. II.—No law varying the compenſation for the ſervices of the ſenators and repreſentatives ſhall take effect, until an election of repreſentatives ſhall have intervened.

ART. III.—Congreſs ſhall make no law reſpecting an eſtabliſhment of religion, or prohibiting the free exerciſe thereof; or abridging the freedom of ſpeech, or of the preſs; or the right of people peaceably to aſſemble, and to petition the government for a redreſs of grievances.

ART. IV.—A well-regulated militia being neceſſary to the ſecurity of a free ſtate, the right of the people to keep and bear arms ſhall not be infringed.

ART. V.—No ſoldier ſhall in time of peace be quartered in any houſe without the conſent of the owner, nor in time of war, but in a manner to be preſcribed by law.

ART. VI.—The right of the people to be ſecure in their perſons, houſes, papers, and effects, againſt unreaſonable ſearches and ſeizures, ſhall not be violated, and no warrants ſhall iſſue, but upon probable cauſe, ſupported by oath or affirmation, and particularly deſcribing the place to be ſearched, and the perſons or things to be ſeized.

ART. VII.—No perſon ſhall be held to anſwer for a capital, or otherwiſe infamous crime, unleſs on a preſentment or indictment of a grand jury, except in caſes ariſing in the land or naval forces, or in the militia when in actual ſervice, in time of war or public danger; nor ſhall any perſon be ſubject for the ſame offence to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb; nor ſhall be compelled in any criminal caſe to be a witneſs againſt himſelf, nor be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due proceſs of law; nor ſhall private property be taken for public uſe without juſt compenſation.

ART. VIII.—In all criminal proſecutions the accuſed ſhall enjoy the right to a ſpeedy and public trial, by an impartial jury of the State and diſtrict wherein the crime ſhall have been committed, which diſtrict ſhall have been previouſly aſcertained by law, and

to be informed of the nature and cauſe of the accuſation; to be confronted with the witneſſes againſt him; to have compulſory proceſs for obtaining witneſſes in his favour, and to have the aſſiſtance of counſel for his defence.

ART. IX.—In ſuits at common law, where the value in controverſy ſhall exceed twenty dollars, the right of trial by jury ſhall be preſerved, and no fact, tried by a jury, ſhall be otherwiſe re-examined in any court of the United States, than according to the rules of the common law.

ART. X.—Exceſſive bail ſhall not be required, nor exceſſive fines impoſed, nor cruel and unuſual puniſhments inflicted.

ART. XI.—The enumeration in the conſtitution, of certain rights, ſhall not be conſtrued to deny or diſparage others retained by the people.

ART. XII.—The powers not delegated to the United States by the conſtitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reſerved to the States reſpectively, or to the people.

The following States have ratified all the foregoing articles of amendment to the conſtitution of the United States, viz. Maryland, North Carolina, South Carolina, New York, Virginia, and Vermont. New Hampſhire, New Jerſey, and Pennſylvania reject the ſecond article; and Delaware rejects the firſt article. No official returns, to our knowledge, have been made from the other States.

SOCIETY OF THE CINCINNATI.] This ſociety was inſtituted immediately on the cloſe of the war in 1783. At their firſt general meeting at Philadelphia, in May 1784, they altered and amended the original inſtitution, and reduced it to its preſent form. They denominated themſelves "*The Society of the Cincinnati*," from the high veneration they poſſeſſed for the character of that illuſtrious Roman, *Lucius Quintius Cincinnatus*.

The perſons who conſtitute this ſociety, and all the commiſſioned and brevet officers of the army and navy of the United States, who ſerved three years, and who left the ſervice with reputation; all officers who were in actual ſervice at the concluſion of the war; all the principal ſtaff officers of the continental army; and the officers who have been deranged by the ſeveral reſolutions of Congreſs, upon the different reforms of the army.

There are alſo admitted into this ſociety, the late and preſent miniſters of his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty to the United States; all the generals and colonels of regiments, and legions of the land forces; all the admirals and captains of the navy, ranking as colonels, who have co-operated with the armies of the United States in their exertions for liberty; and ſuch other perſons as have been admitted by the reſpective State meetings.

The motives which originally induced the officers of the American army to form themſelves into a ſociety of friends, are ſummed up in a maſterly manner, in their circular letter. "Having," ſay they, "lived in the ſtricteſt habits of amity through the various ſtages of a war, unparalleled in many of its circumſtances; having ſeen the objects for which we have contended, happily attained; in the moment of triumph and ſeparation, when we were about to act the laſt pleaſing, melancholy ſcene in our military drama—pleaſing, becauſe we were to leave our country poſſeſſed of independence and peace—melancholy, becauſe we were to part, perhaps never to meet again; while every breaſt was penetrated with feelings which can be more eaſily conceived than deſcribed; while every little act of tenderneſs recurred freſh to the recollection, it was impoſſible not to wiſh our friendſhips ſhould be continued; it was extremely natural to deſire they might be perpetuated by our poſterity to the remoteſt

ages. With theſe impreſſions, and with ſuch ſentiments, we candidly confeſs we ſigned the inſtitution.—We know our motives were irreproachable."

They reſt their inſtitution upon the two great pillars of FRIENDSHIP and CHARITY. Their benevolent intentions are, to diffuſe comfort and ſupport to any of their unfortunate companions who have ſeen better days, and have merited a milder fate; to wipe the tear from the eye of the widow, who muſt have been conſigned, with her helpleſs infants, to indigence and wretchedneſs, but for this charitable inſtitution; to ſuccour the fatherleſs; to reſcue the female orphan from deſtruction; and to enable the ſon to emulate the virtues of the father. "Let us then," they conclude, "proſecute with ardor what we have inſtituted in ſincerity; let Heaven and our own conſciences approve our conduct; let our actions be our beſt comment on our words; and let us leave a leſſon to poſterity, THAT THE GLORY OF SOLDIERS CANNOT BE COMPLETED, WITHOUT ACTING WELL THE PART OF CITIZENS."

The ſociety have an order, (viz.) a Bald Eagle of gold, bearing on its breaſt the emblems deſcribed as follows—

The principal figure is CINCINNATUS; three ſenators preſenting him with a ſword and other military enſigns: on a field in the back ground, his wife ſtanding at the door of their cottage; near it a plough and other inſtruments of huſbandry. Round the whole, *omnia reliquit ſervare rempublicam.* On the reverſe, the ſun riſing, a city with open gates, and veſſels entering the port; fame crowning Cincinnatus with a wreath, inſcribed, *virtutis præmium.* Below, hands joining, ſupporting a heart; with the motto, *eſto perpetua.* Round the whole, *ſocietas Cincinnatorum, inſtituta*, A. D. 1783.

AGRICULTURE, COMMERCE, AND MANUFACTURES.] The three important objects of attention in the United States are agriculture, commerce, and manufactures. The richneſs of the ſoil, which amply rewards the induſtrious huſbandman; the temperature of the climate, which admits of ſteady labour; the cheapneſs of land, which tempts the foreigner from his native home, lead us to fix on agriculture as the preſent great leading intereſt of this country. This furniſhes outward cargoes not only for all our own ſhips, but for thoſe alſo which foreign nations ſend to our ports; or in other words, it pays for all our importations; it ſupplies a great part of the clothing of the inhabitants, and food for them and their cattle. What is conſumed at home, including the materials for manufacturing, is four or five times the value of what is exported.

The number of people employed in agriculture, is at leaſt three parts in four of the inhabitants of the United States; ſome ſay more. It follows of courſe that they form the body of the militia, who are the bulwark of the nation. The value of their property occupied by agriculture, is many times greater than the property employed in every other way. The ſettlement of waſte lands, the ſubdiviſion of farms, and the numerous improvements in huſbandry, annually increaſe the pre-eminence of the agricultural intereſt. The reſources we derive from it, are at all times certain and indiſpenſably neceſſary: beſides, the rural life promotes health, by its active nature; and morality, by keeping people from the luxuries and vices of the populous towns. In ſhort, agriculture is the ſpring of our commerce, and the parent of our manufactures.

The vaſt extent of ſea-coaſt, which ſpreads before theſe confederated States; the number of excellent harbours and ſea-port towns; the numerous creeks and immenſe bays, which indent the coaſt; and the rivers, lakes, and canals, which peninſulate the whole country; added to its agricultural advantages and improvements, give this part of the world ſuperior advantages for trade. Our commerce, including our exports,

imports, ſhipping, manufactures, and fiſheries, may properly be conſidered as forming one intereſt. This has been conſidered as the great object, and the moſt important intereſt of the New England States.

Since commerce has ever been conſidered as the handmaid of agriculture, particularly in this country, where the agricultural intereſt ſo greatly predominates; and ſince neither can flouriſh without the other, policy and intereſt point out the neceſſity of ſuch a ſyſtem of commercial and agricultural regulations, as will originate and effectually preſerve a proper connection and balance between them.

The conſumption of fiſh, oil, whale-bone, and other articles obtained through the fiſheries, in the towns and counties that are convenient for navigation, has become much greater than is generally ſuppoſed. It is computed that no leſs than five thouſand barrels of mackarel, ſalmon and pickled codfiſh are vended annually in the city of Philadelphia: add to them the dried fiſh, oil, ſpermaceti candles, whale-bone, &c. and it will be found that a little fleet of ſloops and ſchooners are employed in the buſineſs.

The demand for the forementioned articles is proportionably great in the other parts of the union, (eſpecially in Boſton and the large commercial towns that lie along the coaſt north-caſtward, which enter largely into the fiſhing trade) and the veſſels employed in tranſporting them proportionably numerous. The increaſe of our towns and manufactures will increaſe the demand for theſe articles, and of courſe the number of coaſting veſſels. In the preſent ſtate of our navigation, we can be in no doubt of procuring theſe ſupplies by means of our own veſſels. This will afford encouragement to the buſineſs of ſhip-building, and increaſe the number of our ſeamen, who muſt hereafter form an important part of the defence of our country. Add to theſe, our proſpects from the fur trade of Canada. The vaſt ſettlements which are making at Pittſburg, Geneſſe, and in other parts in the neighbourhood of Canada; the advantages of our inland navigation, by means of the lakes, the northern branches of the Ohio, the Patomak, the Suſquehannah and the Hudſon, with many other circumſtances depending not only on the ſituation, but likewiſe on the climate, proximity, &c. muſt, in a few years, put a large ſhare of this fur trade into our hands, and procure us, at leaſt, our proportionable ſhare of the large profits thence ariſing, which Canada, ſince the year 1763, has enjoyed almoſt excluſively. Theſe advantages, however, are ſtill but in proſpect; and muſt remain ſo until the Britiſh, agreeably to treaty, ſhall have evacuated the forts at Niagara, the large ſettlements of the Heights, and that of Michillimakinak. Although the Britiſh, by the treaty of peace, are to enjoy with us the portages of the navigation of the lakes, yet, ſhould a diſpute ariſe, it will not be convenient for them to contend with us; for the northern and north-eaſtern parts of the continent, included in the Britiſh limits, are much colder, more mountainous and poorer than the United States, and have no rivers, but ſuch as are full of rapids and falls; conſequently, this trade cannot be carried on by the Canadians with the ſame facility nor advantage as by us. Still they will have left the excluſive right to the communication from Montreal with the High-lands, through the large river of the Ottawas, which flows into the river St. Lawrence at the lake of the Two Mountains, nine miles from that city; but its rapids and falls will render this way, if not impracticable, at leaſt always very expenſive and precarious.

The quantity of fur exported from the northern parts of America to Great Britain, have amounted yearly to about forty one thouſand pounds ſterling, eſtimated from the freight during the years 1768, 1769, and 1770. The exports of buck-ſkins amounted to upwards of thirty three thouſand pounds. The ſales of fur, which take place in London

London every ſpring, produced in 1782, four thouſand ſeven hundred pounds. It was a little increaſed in 1783, and in 1784, it exceeded two hundred and forty five thouſand pounds. All this fur is paid for by Engliſh manufacturers; and a fourth part of it is worked in England, where its worth is doubled. This valuable trade, which is carried on through Quebec, will a great part of it fall into our hands, as ſoon as the fortifications, which the Britiſh poſſeſs in our northern territories, ſhall be reſtored to us. To this conſideration, rather than to the pretended compaſſion for the Royaliſts, may be attributed the delay of that reſtitution. The period when this reſtitution *muſt* be made, the Britiſh anticipate with ſorrow. Such are ſome of the commercial reſources and proſpects of this country.

But for various reaſons, the advantages for trade which nature has ſo liberally given us, have never, till ſince the eſtabliſhment of the preſent government, been properly improved. Before the revolution, Great Britain claimed an excluſive right to the trade of her American colonies. This right, which ſhe inflexibly maintained, enabled her to fix her own price, as well on the articles which ſhe purchaſed from us, as upon thoſe of her own manufactures exported for our conſumption. The carrying trade, too, was preſerved almoſt excluſively in her own hands, which afforded a temptation to the carriers, that was often too powerful to be withſtood, to exact exorbitant commiſſions and freights. Although we will not even hazard a conjecture how much Great Britain enriched herſelf by this excluſive trade with her colonies, yet this we may ſay, that by denying us the privilege of carrying our produce to foreign markets, ſhe deprived us of the opportunity of realizing, in their full extent, the advantages for trade which nature has given us.

The late war, which brought about our ſeparation from Great Britain, threw our commercial affairs into great confuſion. The powers of the old confederation were unequal to the complete execution of any meaſures, calculated effectually to recover them from their deranged ſituation. Through want of power in the old Congreſs to collect a revenue for the diſcharge of our foreign and domeſtic debt, our credit was deſtroyed, and trade of conſequence greatly embaraſſed. Each State, in her deſultory regulations of trade, regarded her own intereſt, while that of the union was neglected. And ſo different were the intereſts of the ſeveral States, that their laws reſpecting trade often claſhed with each other, and were productive of unhappy conſequences. The large commercial States had it in their power to oppreſs their neighbours; and in ſome inſtances this power was directly or indirectly exerciſed. Theſe impolitic and unjuſtifiable regulations, formed on the impreſſion of the moment, and proceeding from no uniform or permanent principles, excited unhappy jealouſies between the claſhing States, and occaſioned frequent ſtagnations in their trade, and in ſome inſtances, a ſecrecy in their commercial policy. But the wiſe meaſures which have been adopted by Congreſs, under our preſent efficient government, have extricated us almoſt entirely from theſe embarraſſments, and put a new and pleaſing face upon our public affairs. Inveſted with the adequate powers, Congreſs have formed a ſyſtem of commercial regulations, which enable us to meet the oppoſers of our trade upon their own ground; a ſyſtem which has placed our commerce on a reſpectable, uniform, and intelligible footing, adapted to promote the general intereſts of the union, with the ſmalleſt injury to the individual States.

The following tables, taken from authenticated copies, will give the beſt idea of the preſent ſtate of commerce in the United States.

ABSTRACT

ABSTRACT of DUTIES arising on GOODS, WARES, and MERCHANDISE, imported into the UNITED STATES; commencing on the 1st October 1790, and ending the 30th of September 1791.

STATES.	Gross Amount of Duties.	Discount of 10 per cent. on Goods imported in American Veſſels.	Addition of 10 per cent. on Goods imported in Foreign Veſſels.	Total Amount of Duties.	Expence of Collection.	Drawbacks.	Bounties.	Nett Amount of Duties.
	Dol. Cts.	*Dol. Cts.*	*Dol. Cts.*	*Dol. Cts.*	*Dol. Cts.*	*Dol. Cts.*	*Dol. Cts.*	*Dol. Cts.*
New Hampſhire	29,429. 44	455. 24	36. 49¾	29,010. 69½	1,553. 81½	144. 91	311. 68	27,000. 29
Maſſachuſetts	480,129. 47¼	10,528. 97½	1,448. 95½	471,049. 45¼	25,953. 83 10/12	11,130. 43¾	13,258. 00¾	420,707. 17 5/12
Rhode Iſland	115,350. 42¼	1,906. 37½	15. 68	113,459. 72¾	4,924. 88½	389. 10	1,043. 39	107,102. 35¼
Connecticut	112,728. 47	1,762. 49	1,653. 04	112,619. 02	5,593. 29¼	- -	674. 19½	106,351. 53¼
New York	639,165. 53½	5,202. 65	15,565. 50	649,528. 38½	13,460. 45	16,416. 33	117. 44	619,534. 16½
New Jerſey	7,162. 56	214. 49	- - -	6,948. 07	349. 38½	- -	- -	6,598. 68½
Pennſylvania	727,133. 37	10,162. 19	13,179. 85	730,151. 03	15,280. 48	6,915. 26	- -	707,955. 29
Delaware	20,036. 52½	571. 05	203. 67	19,669. 14½	1,246. 96½	138. 32	- -	18,283. 86
Maryland	338,035. 25	4,798. 02	6,009. 70	339,246. 93¼	11,223. 62¼	5,058. 38½	- -	322,964. 92½
Virginia	340,303. 03 2/12	5,143. 70½	11,502. 56	346,661. 88 2/3	11,176. 49½	461. 66	27. 90	334,995. 83 2/12
North Carolina	62,065. 11½	781. 97	1,788. 52	63,071. 66½	4,180. 78¾	29. 45¼	- -	58,861. 42½
South Carolina	239,912. 99	3,118. 33	8,166. 95	244,961. 61	10,879. 38	- -	- -	234,082. 23
Georgia	43,634. 91½	334. 87	1,796. 59	45,096. 63½	2,692. 77	118. 77	- -	42,285. 09½
Total	3,155,087. 09⅔	44,980. 35½	61,367. 5¼	3,171,474. 25 5/12	108,516. 16 7/12	40,802. 62	15,432. 61¼	3,006,722. 85 7/12

Treaſury Department,
Regiſter's Office, March 15th, 1792.

JOSEPH NOURSE, Regiſter.

GENERAL ABSTRACT of DUTIES ariſing on the TONNAGE of Veſſels entered into the UNITED STATES, from the 1ſt of October 1790, to 30th of September 1791.

STATES.	UNITED STATES VESSELS.		UNITED STATES COASTERS.		UNITED STATES. FISHERIES.		FRANCE.		GREAT BRITAIN.	
	Tons. 95ths.	*Dol. Cts.*	*Tons. 95ths.*	*Dol. Cts.*	*Tons. 95ths.*	*Dol. Cts.*	*Tens. 95ths.*	*Dol. Cts.*	*Tons. 95ths.*	*Dol. Cts.*
New Hampſhire	10,839.	650. 34	1,560.	93. 60	629.	37. 74	264.	132.	1,386.	693.
Maſſachuſetts	96,564. 25	5,822. 98½	46,063. 94	2,767. 56	29,560. 27	1,774. 70½	404. 57	202. 28	22,495. 93	11,251. 21½
Rhode Iſland	19,196. 70	1,151. 84¾	9,103. 18	546. 25¾	810. 87	48. 65½	88. 18	26. 46	280. 71	140. 37½
Connecticut	19,728. 63	1,183. 72	8,098. 48	487. 70½	913. 32	54. 80	-	-	3,966. 71	1,983. 23½
New York	40,334. 47	2,720. 85	5,725.	343. 38	567. 24	34. 3	1,503. 24	751. 60	35,154. 47	17,576. 56
New Jerſey	1,213. 24	72. 79	4,567. 92	274. 34	-	-	-	-	-	-
Pennſylvania	50,327. 64	3,234. 34	3,923. 40	235. 43	-	-	967.	483. 50	27,327. 48	13,664. 12
Delaware	4,610. 23	276. 61½	1,187.	71. 22	-	-	-	-	1,913. 24	956. 62
Maryland	33,375. 11	2,029. 34	7,836. 16	470. 12½	537. 47	32. 25	714. 48	357. 25	18,215. 55	9,107. 78⅝
Virginia	32,041. 6	1,922. 36½	10,636. 60	638. 77	72. 71	4. 36½	2,414. 34	1,207. 18	44,812. 9	22,406. 70
North Carolina	23,962. 75	1,437. 80¼	6,796. 31	438. 56¾	-	-	436. 79	218. 42	13,662. 59	6,831. 31½
South Carolina	22,497. 55	1,349. 75	4,675. 38	280. 77	25.	1. 50	339. 5	169. 52	20,827. 80	10,413. 47
Georgia	7,063. 40	423. 80	733. 20	43. 96	-	-	391. 60	195. 82	16,165. 75	8,082. 88
Total	361,754. 28	22,276. 54½	110,906. 77	6,691. 67½	33,116. 3	1,988. 4½	7,523. 40	3,744. 3	206,208. 02	103,107. 27½

GENERAL ABSTRACT Continued.

STATES.	SPAIN.		PORTUGAL.		UNITED NETHERLANDS.		GERMANY.		HANSE TOWS.	
	Tons. 95*ths*	*Dol. Cts.*	*Tons.* 95*ths*	*Dol. Cts.*	*Tons.* 95*ths*	*Dol. Cts.*	*Tons.* 95*ths*	*Dol. Cts.*	*Tons.* 95*ths*	*Dol. Cts.*
New Hampshire -	-	-	162.	81	-	-	-	-	-	-
Massachusetts -	-	-	248. 69	124. 37	121.	65. 50	-	-	-	-
Rhode Island -	47.	23. 50	-	-	100. 31	50. 26½	-	-	-	-
Connecticut -	59. 59	29. 80	-	-	100. 21	50. 11	-	-	-	-
New York -	243. 24	121. 62	1,563. 71	781. 85	1,079. 71	539. 85	-	-	-	-
New Jersey -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Pennsylvania -	2,062. 79	1,025. 90	2,533. 14	1,266. 61	251. 88	125. 98	-	-	-	-
Delaware -	-	-	-	-	163.	81. 50	-	-	-	-
Maryland -	503.	251. 50	589	294. 50	1,372. 47	686. 25	463.	231. 50	-	-
Virginia -	65.	32. 50	-	-	180.	90.	-	-	-	-
North Carolina -	-	-	-	-	73.	36. 50	-	-	-	-
South Carolina -	1,670. 32	835. 14	56. 21	28. 11	194. 68	97. 36	-	-	2,603. 9	1,301. 50
Georgia -	102. 53	51. 26	-	-	243. 88	121. 96	-	-	218. 54	109. 28
Total	4,753. 57	2,371. 22	5,152. 80	2,576. 44	3,890. 54	1,945. 27½	463.	231. 50	2,821. 63	1,410. 78

STATES.	DENMARK.		SWEDEN AND RUSSIA.		TOTAL AMERICAN TONNAGE.		TOTAL FOREIGN TONNAGE.		TOTAL FOREIGN AND DOMESTIC.	
	Tons. 95*ths*	*Dol. Cts.*	*Tons.* 95*ths*	*Dol. Cts.*	*Tons.* 95*ths*	*Dol. Cts.*	*Tons.* 95*ths*	*Dol. Cts.*	*Tons.* 95*ths*	*Dol. Cts.*
New Hampshire	-	-	-	-	13,028	781. 68	1,812	888. 40	14,840	1,670. 8
Massachusetts	531. 16	265. 68	319. 92	160	172,084. 51	10,359. 13	24,131. 42	12,046. 60⅓	196,215. 93	22,405. 73⅓
Rhode Island	-	-	-	-	29,110. 80	1,729. 90	516. 45	240. 60	29,627. 30	1,970. 50
Connecticut	-	-	-	-	28,740. 48	1,726. 22½	4,126. 56	2,063. 14½	32,867. 9	3,789. 37
New York	-	-	-	-	46,626. 71	3,098. 26	39,544. 47	19,448. 8	86,171. 23	22,546. 34
New Jersey	-	-	-	-	5,234. 69	302. 94	—	—	5,234. 69	302. 94
Pennsylvania	219.	109. 50	225. 32	112. 67	53,186. 24	3,405. 87	33,586. 75	16,686. 86	86,773	20,092. 73
Delaware	-	-	-	-	5,797. 23	347. 83½	2,076. 24	1,038. 12	7,873. 47	1,385. 95½
Maryland	497.	248. 50	-	-	41,748. 74	2,531. 23½	22,254. 55	10,699. 22⅔	64,103. 34	13,230. 46⅙
Virginia	194. 43	97. 25	-	-	42,750. 42	2,565. 50	47,665. 86	22,947. 59	90,416. 33	25,513. 9
North Carolina	-	-	136. 59	68. 31	30,759. 11	1,876. 37	14,309. 7	7,019. 54½	45,068. 18	8,895. 91½
South Carolina	-	-	76. 54	38. 28	27,197. 93	1,632. 2	25,767. 79	12,883. 38	52,965. 72	14,515. 40
Georgia	-	-	-	-	7,796. 60	467. 76	17,122. 45	8,561. 20	24,919. 10	9,028. 96
Total	1,441. 59	720. 93	758. 47	379. 26	504,061. 76	30,824. 72½	233,013. 82	114,522. 75	737,075. 63	145,347. 47½

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, *Register's Office, March 9th*, 1792.

JOSEPH NOURSE, *Register.*

ABSTRACT *of* GOODS, WARES, *and* MERCHANDIZE, *exported from the* United States, *from the 1st of October, 1790, to the 30th of September, 1791.*

SPECIES OF MERCHANDISE EXPORTED.

	Quantity.		*Value.*
ASHES, *Pot* - -	3,083 $\frac{74}{100}$	tons	*Dollars* 308,362
Aſhes, *Pearl* - -	3,197 $\frac{60}{100}$	ditto	- 431,676
Apples - -	12,352	barrels	- 12,352
Bricks - - -	737,764	number	- 2,582
Boats - - -	99		- 2,970
Bellows for ſmiths - -	4		- 120
Beer, Ale, and Porter -	44,526	gallons	- 8,905. 20
Ditto, bottled - -	719	dozens	- 1,438
Boots - - -	482	pairs	- 2,892
Boot-legs - -	17	ditto	- 34
Brimſtone - -	3,280	pounds	- 98
Blacking or Lampblack -	8,518	ditto	- 2,850
Bayberries - -	18	buſhels	- 9
Cider - - -	1,694	barrels	- 2,541
Ditto bottled - -	310	dozens	- 310
Chalk - - -	10	tons	- 180
Cotton - - -	189,316	pounds	- 47,329
Coffee - - -	962,977	ditto	- 144,446. 55
Cocoa - - -	8,322	ditto	- 832. 20
Chocolate - -	497	boxes	- 3,832
Candles, Myrtle Wax -	348	ditto	- 2,088
Wax -	185	ditto	- 1,665
Tallow - -	2,745	ditto	- 13,725
Cables and Cordage -	3,533	per 112lb.	- 27,264
Copper Ore - -	20	ditto	- 300
Pig - -	216	ditto	- 4,320
Sheet - -	296	ditto	- 7,992
Manufactured -	1,480	pounds	- 493. 33
Coals - - -	3,780	buſhels	- 758
Craneberries - -	720	ditto	- 360
Corks - - -	300	groſs	- 45
Corn-fans - -	1	number	- 16
Canes and Walking-ſticks -	598	ditto	- 153
Cotton and Wool-cards -	25	dozens	- 2,350
CARRIAGES.			
Coaches, Chariots, Phaetons, &c.	85	number	- 12,300
Waggons and Carts -	25	ditto	- 1,280
Duck American - -	478	bolts	- 4,780
Ruſſia - -	235	ditto	- 2,350
DRUGS *and* MEDICINES.			
Glauber Salts - -	1,580	pounds	- 158
Pink, China and Snake Root, &c.	14,900	ditto	- 3,000
Saſſafras Bark - -	34 $\frac{1}{4}$	tons	- 390
Saſſafras Wood or Root -	34 $\frac{1}{4}$	ditto	- 685
		Carried forward	- 1,059,006. 28

EARTHEN *and* STONE WARE.			*Brought forward,*	*dollars* 1,059,006. 28
Stone -	55	dozens	-	100
Yellow or Queen's -	157	crates	-	1,884
Flaxseed - -	58,492	casks	-	327,555. 53
Flax - - -	18,600	pounds	-	1,488
Feathers - - -	900	ditto	-	420
Flints - -	40,000	number	-	200
FRAMES of Vessels -	1	-	-	400
Snows - -	6	-	-	300
Boats - -	10	-	-	150
Houses - -	195	-	-	9,750
Windows and Doors -	31	-	-	46
FURNITURE HOUSE.				
Tables - -	75	-	-	750
Bedsteads - -	18	-	-	180
Desks - - -	78	-	-	1,560
Bureaus - - -	21	-	-	294
Sophas and Settees -	59	-	-	834
Clocks, - -	8	-	-	640
Clock-cases - -	3	-	-	90
Chests - - -	785	-	-	14,10
Chairs, Windsor - -	5,134	-	-	5,134
Chairs, Rush - -	738	-	-	224
FISHERIES.				
Fish dried - -	383,237	quin. per 112lb.		958,692.50
Fish pickled - -	57,424	barrels	-	172,272
Oil, Whale - -	447,323	gallons	-	89,464. 60
Oil, Spermaceti - -	134,595	ditto	-	53,838
Candles, ditto - -	4,560	boxes	-	54,720
Whalebone - -	124,829	pounds	-	24,965. 80
Gensang - -	29,208	ditto	-	7,682. 80
Grindstones - -	125	number	-	187. 50
Glass Ware - -	21	crates	-	84
Ditto for Windows -	92	boxes	-	920
GROCERIES.				
Cassia and Cinnamon -	1,778	pounds	-	3,389
Cloves - - -	900	ditto	-	1,150
Pimento -	141,701	ditto	-	22,672
Pepper - - -	492	ditto	-	246
Brown Sugar - -	73,304	ditto	-	5,864. 32
Loaf Sugar - -	1,157	ditto	-	231. 33
Other Sugars - -	1,200	ditto	-	132
Raisins - - -	400	ditto	-	64
GRAIN *and* PULSE.				
Wheat - - -	1,018,339	bushels	-	1,018,339
Rye - - -	36,737	ditto	-	19,470. 61
Barley - - -	35	ditto	-	23. 33
Indian Corn - -	1,713,241	ditto	-	856,620. 50
Oats - - -	116,634	ditto	-	23,326. 80
Buck Wheat - -	14,499	ditto	-	4,784. 67
Peas and Beans - -	165,273	ditto	-	123,954. 75
Horns and Horntips -	119,776	number	-	1,348
Hides, raw - -	704	-	-	1,408
		Carried forward	-	4,857,667. 32

		Brought forward,	*dollars*	4,857,667. 32
Hats	435	-	-	1,305
Honey	1,740	gallons	-	1,044
Hops	650	pounds	-	200
Hemp	1,544	ditto	-	103
Hay	2,006	tons	-	25,075
IRON WROUGHT.				
Axes	979	number	-	979
Hoes	200	-	-	99. 96
Drawing Knives	24	-	-	4
Scythes	48	-	-	48
Locks and Bolts	2,000	-	-	600
Shovels	261	-	-	130. 50
Skimmers and Ladles	15	pair	-	50
Anchors	175	number	-	5,300
Grapnals	18	-	-	244
Muſkets	160	-	-	800
Cutlaſſes	72	-	-	144
Knives and Forks	240	-	-	10
Cheſts of Carpenters' Tools	4	-	-	200
IRON CASTINGS.				
Waggon Boxes	50	pairs	-	83
Pots, Kettles, and other Caſtings	808	number	-	600
Cannon	37	-	-	1,110
Swivels	8	-	-	24
Shot for Cannon	1,000	-	-	150
IRON, the ton				
Pig	4,178¾	tons	-	108,647. 50
Bar	349½	ditto	-	27,960
Nail Rods	8	ditto	-	800
Hoops	16½	ditto	-	1,980
Indigo (ſee note A.)	497,720	lbs. and fundry caſks		570,234
Leather, tanned and dreſſed	5,424	pounds	-	1,356
Lime	1,320	buſhels	-	198
LEAD, Sheet	45	ſheets	-	1,650
Pig	16½	tons	-	1,848
Shot	6,473	pounds	-	388. 38
LIVE STOCK.				
Horned Cattle	4,627	number	-	84,442. 67
Horſes	6,975	-	-	279,000
Mules	444	-	-	17,760
Sheep	10,377	-	-	17,640. 90
Deer	4	-	-	16
Hogs	16,803	-	-	45,368. 10
Poultry	10,217	dozens	-	15,325. 50
Merchandiſe or dry Goods, foreign	1,439	packages, eſtimated at		120,000
Molaſſes	12,721	gallons	-	2,540. 20
Millſtones	2	number	-	200
Muſtard	710	pounds	-	390
Madder	1,034	ditto	-	258. 50
Nails	130,293	ditto	-	19,543. 95
Negro Slaves	24	number	-	3,808
		Carried forward	-	6,217,330. 48

	Brought forward, dols.			6,217,330. 48
Nankeens - - -	7,070	pieces	-	20,605
Nuts - - -	1,240	bushels	-	1,240
NAVAL STORES. (see note A.)				
Pitch - - -	3,818	barrels	-	6,681. 50
Tar - - -	51,044	ditto	-	76,566
Rosin - - -	228	ditto	-	570
Turpentine - -	58,107	ditto	-	116,214
Spirits of Turpentine -	1,172	gallons	-	586
Oil, Linseed - -	90	ditto	-	45
Porcelain or China Ware -	1	boxes	-	24
Powder, Gun - -	25,854	pounds	-	1,405. 60
Powder, Hair - -	1,276	ditto	-	319
Pomatum - -	45	ditto	-	22. 50
Paints - - -	1,520	ditto	-	304
Pipes - - -	1	box	-	2
Printing Presses - -	4	number	-	200
Plaister of Paris - -	4	tons	-	32
PROVISIONS.				
Rice (see note A.) - -	93,329	tierces		1,136,599. 50
Flour - - -	119,681	barrels		3,408,245. 50
Ship Stuff - -	6,484	ditto	-	12,968
Rye Meal - -	24,062	ditto	-	60,155
Indian Meal - -	70,339	ditto	-	140,678
Buckwheat Meal - -	422	ditto	-	1,603. 60
Oat Meal - -	6	ditto	-	16
Bread - - -	100,279	ditto	-	250,697. 50
Beef - - -	62,371	ditto	-	374,226
Pork - - -	26,635	ditto	-	266,350
Crackers - - -	15,346	kegs	-	6,138. 40
Hams and Bacon - -	295,647	pounds	-	26,590. 23
Venison and Mutton Hams -	600	ditto	-	120
Cheese - - -	120,901	ditto	-	8,463. 7
Lard - - -	522,715	ditto	-	41,817. 20
Butter - - -	16,670	firkins	-	91,685
Sausages - - -	250	pounds	-	25
Fresh Beef - -	62,269	ditto	-	3,690. 76
Fresh Pork - -	29,334	ditto	-	1,760. 4
Carcases of Mutton -	561	number	-	2,805
Neats Tongues - -	160	barrels	-	1,200
Oysters Pickled - -	1,228	kegs	-	2,456
Potatoes - - -	22,263	bushels	-	5,565. 75
Onions - - -	42,420	ditto	-	21,210
Other Vegetables - -	sundries	-	-	1,000
Reeds - - -	15,450	-	-	77. 50
SPIRITS.				
Rum, American - -	513,234	gallons	-	205,293. 60
Rum, West India - -	4,742	ditto	-	3,793. 60
Brandy - - -	158	ditto	-	158
Brandy, Peach - -	753	ditto	-	753
Gin - - -	10,252	ditto	-	8,201. 60
Ditto - - -	3,817	cases	-	15,268
Ditto - - -	3,039	jugs	-	509. 75
Cordials - - -	69	cases	-	207
		Carried forward		12,534,474. 68

			Brought forward		12,534,474. 68
SADLERY.					
Saddles, Men's	- -	414	number	-	4,968
Bridles	- - - -	402	-	-	450
Coach and other Carriage Harneſs		74	ſets	-	1,740
Waggon and Cart Geers	-	8	-	-	50
Shoes, Mens and Womens	-	7,046	pairs	-	6,341. 40
Soap	- - -	69	boxes	-	2,764
Sago	- - -	2,382	pounds	-	382. 82
Starch	- - - -	160	ditto	-	90. 60
Snuff	- - -	15,689	ditto	-	3,137. 80
Steel	- - -	1,375	bundles	-	7,333. 33
Silk, Raw	- -	153	pounds	-	425. 34
Silver, Old	- -	103	ounces	-	103
Salt	- - - -	4,208	buſhels	-	1,032
Spruce, Eſſence of	- -	94	caſes	-	517
SEEDS.					
Garden	- -	1,060	pounds	-	1,060
Muſtard	- -	660	-	-	88
Hay	- - - -	60	-	-	8
Cotton	- - - -	109	buſhels	-	104. 99
SKINS *and* FURS.					
Morocco	- - -	132	number of	-	264
Calf in Hair	- - -	404	ditto	-	321. 60
Deer and Mooſe	- - -	1,063	ditto	-	563
Seals	- - -	2,672	ditto	-	13,360
Bear, Wolf, and Tyger	-	37	ditto	-	56. 57
Otter	- - -	100	ditto	-	166. 67
Deer Skins	- -	49,011	pounds	-	24,555. 50
Skins and Furs unknown	-	889	caſks and packets		132,000
Tobacco [ſee note A.]	-	101,272	hogſheads		3,469,448
Ditto manufactured	-	81,122	pounds	-	12,168. 60
Types	- - -	3	boxes	-	300
Tallow	- - -	317,195	pounds	-	28,547. 55
Twine	- - -	19¾	per 112lb.	-	441. 86
Towcloth	- -	1,850	yards	-	1,233
Toys for Children	-	112½	dozens	-	225
Tin	- - -	9	boxes	-	120
Ditto manufactured	- -	15½	dozens	-	80
TEAS—Bohea	- -	17½	cheſts	-	1,750
Souchong	- -	492	ditto	-	24,600
Green	- -	178	ditto	-	5,340
Hyſon	- -	2,235¾	ditto	-	145,323. 75
Vinegar	- - -	2,248	gallons	-	562
Varniſh	- - -	60	ditto	-	20
WINES.					
Madeira	- - -	76,466	ditto	-	99,405. 80
Other Wines	- -	32,336	ditto	-	24,252
Bottled	- - -	6	dozens	-	42
WAX, Bees	- -	224,538	pounds	-	53,889. 12
Myrtle	- - -	2,272	ditto	-	272. 64
Whips	- - -	146	number	-	26
			Carried forward		16,602,425. 62

		Brought forward, dols.	16,602,425.62
Wood.			
Staves and Heading	29,061,590	number	369,663
Shingles	74,205,976	-	133,570
Shook Casks	42,032	-	29,422.40
Casks	297	-	297
Laths	25,500	-	20.40
Hoops	1,422,155	-	14,221.55
Hoop-poles	3,422	-	27.60
Masts	405	-	3,645
Bowsprits	42	-	420
Booms	74	-	148
Spars	4,983	-	7,474.50
Hand Spikes	36,714	-	1,529 75
Pumps	80	-	120
Boxes and Brakes	56	-	14
Blocks	7,040	-	2,000
Oars	28,456	-	5,691.20
Oar Rafters	13,080	-	2,616
Trunnels	45,905	-	137.71
Cedar and Oak Knees	1,067	-	746.90
Breast Hooks	50	-	100
Carlings	13	-	13
Anchor Stocks	809	-	404.50
Cedar Posts	10,453	-	297.50
Oak Boards and Plank	963,822	feet	9,638.22
Pine Boards and Plank	27,288,928	ditto	223,733.56
Other Boards and Plank	3,463,673	ditto	34,636.73
Scantling	6,237,496	ditto	31,187.48
Timber. Oak, Pine, &c.	2,180,137	ditto	21,801.37
Timber. Ditto, ditto	13,775	tons	41,325
Timber. Mahogany	5	ditto	22
Lignum Vitæ	1,180	per 112lb.	354
Logwood and Nicaragua	105½	ditto	105.50
Mahogany, Logwood, &c.	3,251	pieces	2,879.86
Oak, Pine, &c.	38,680	ditto	18,000
Cords of Oak, Pine, Hickory, &c.	499	cords	748.50
Ditto of Oak Bark	57	ditto	114
Oak Bark, Ground	1,040	hhds.	6,240
Mast Hoops	148	dozens	111
Axe Helves	149	ditto	74.50
Truss Hoops	15	sets	37.50
Yokes and Bowes for Oxen	197	ditto	295.50
Lock Stocks	4,000	number	60
Worm Tubs	6	ditto	30
Wheel Barrows	6	ditto	9.60
Waggon and Cart Wheels	25	pairs	300
Spokes and Fellies	12,972	number	1,621.50
Spinning Wheels	17	ditto	51
Tubs, Pails, &c.	34	dozens	150
Bowls, Dishes, Platters, &c.	170	ditto	340
		Total dollars,	17,571,551.45

(A.) Returns for *two* quarters from Charleston, and from several small ports, are deficient.

SUMMARY OF EXPORTS.

A SUMMARY *of the* VALUE *and* DESTINATION *of the* EXPORTS *of the* UNITED STATES *agreeably to the foregoing abſtract.*

	Dols.	Cts.
To the dominions of Ruſſia	3,570	
To the dominions of Sweden	21,866.	2
To the dominions of Denmark	277,273.	53
To the dominions of the United Netherlands	1,634,825.	6
To the dominions of Great Britain	7,953,418.	21
To the Imperial ports of the Auſtrian Netherlands and Germany	362,010.	21
To Hamburg, Bremen, and other Hanſe towns	64,259.	25
To the dominions of France	4,298,762.	26
To the dominions of Spain	1,301,286.	95
To the dominions of Portugal	1,039,696.	47
To the Italian Ports	31,726.	90
To Morocco	3,660.	50
To the Eaſt Indies, generally	318,628.	46
To Africa, generally	168,477.	92
To the Weſt Indies, generally	59,434.	36
To the North Weſt Coaſt of America	3,380	
To Europe and the Weſt Indies for a market	29,274.	5
Total Dollars	17,571,551.	45

The exports of the year ending September 31, 1792, amounted in value to } 21,005,568 —

Treaſury Department, March 28th, 1792.

TENCH COXE, *Aſſiſt. Sec.*

The foregoing tables will ſerve to give the reader an accurate view of the ſtate of our commerce with foreign nations; of the articles, and the quantity exported of each, and of the amount of duties ariſing from our imports and tonnage.

In this connection it may be uſeful to notice the principal reſtrictions, impoſitions, and prohibitions ſuſtained by the United States, in their trade with the Britiſh dominions, in contraſt with thoſe ſuſtained by Great Britain in her trade with the United States; and this is the more neceſſary, as there are not wanting perſons who affirm, that the balance of *favour* is given to the United States, and that Great Britain is ſo far injured by our deportment, as to juſtify a retaliation.

The principal facts, relative to the queſtion of reciprocity of commercial regulalations, between Great Britain and the United States of America, have, by a gentleman who had acceſs to every neceſſary information for the purpoſe, been thrown into the form of a table, as follows:

GREAT BRITAIN	THE UNITED STATES
Prohibits American veſſels from entering into the ports of ſeveral parts of her dominions, viz. the Weſt Indies, Canada, Nova Scotia, New Brunſwick, Newfoundland, Cape Breton, Hudſon's Bay, Honduras Bay, and her Eaſt India ſpice-market.	Admit Britiſh veſſels into *all* their ports, ſubject to a tonnage duty of 44 cents, or 24 ſterling pence, more than American veſſels, and an addition of one tenth to the amount of the impoſt accruing on their cargoes.

GREAT BRITAIN.	THE UNITED STATES.
She impoſes double light money on American veſſels in moſt of her ports.	They do not impoſe extra light money on Britiſh veſſels in any of their ports.
She prohibits the navigating *ad libitum*, of American veſſels, by native or other ſeamen.	They admit the navigating of Britiſh veſſels by native or other ſeamen, *ad libitum*.
She prohibits the employment of American built ſhips by her own citizens, in many branches of trade, upon any terms.	They admit the employment of Britiſh built ſhips by their own citizens, in every branch of trade, upon the terms of 44 cents extra per ton, and one tenth extra on the impoſt ariſing from their cargoes.
She charges a duty on American ſail cloth, made up in the United States for Britiſh ſhips.	They do not charge a duty on Britiſh ſail cloth, made up in Great Britain for American ſhips.
She prohibits the importation of goods from ſeveral parts of her dominions into others, in American veſſels, upon any terms.	They admit the importation of goods from any part of their dominions into another, in Britiſh veſſels, on the terms of 44 cents per ton extra on the veſſel.
She prohibits the importation of goods into Great Britain, by American veſſels, from any other country than the United States.	They admit the importation of goods into the United States, in Britiſh veſſels, from *every* country whatever.
She prohibits the importation into Great Britain from the United States, by American veſſels, of all goods not produced by the United States.	They do not prohibit the importation into the United States from Great Britain, by Britiſh veſſels, of any goods not produced by Great Britain.
She prohibits the importation of any goods previouſly brought into the United States, from the ſaid States into Great Britain, even in Britiſh veſſels.	They do not prohibit the importation of any goods previouſly brought into Great Britain, from that kingdom into the United States, in either Britiſh or American bottoms.
She prohibits the exportation of ſeveral articles from Great Britain to the United States.	They do not prohibit the exportation of any article from the United States to Great Britain.
She lays duties of various rates upon the exportation of many articles to the United States.	They do not lay a duty on the exportation of any article whatever to Great Britain.
She prohibits the importation of all manufactures from the United States, into her European dominions, and her colonies, unleſs it be ſome very ſimple preparations and decoctions, requiſite to her navy, ſhipping, and manufactures.	They do not prohibit the importation of any manufacture whatever from Great Britain.
She impoſes very conſiderable duties upon ſome of the *agricultural* productions of the United States, and excludes others by duties equal to their value.	They impoſe moderate duties (lower than any other foreign nation by 2, 3, and 4 for one) on the *produce and manufactures* of Great Britain, except in a very few inſtances, and exclude ſcarcely any articles by duties equal to their value.

She

GREAT BRITAIN.	THE UNITED STATES.
She prohibits, for conſiderable terms of time, ſome of the principal *agricultural* productions of the United States, and others at all times.	They prohibit none of the agricultural productions of Great Britain or her dominions.
It is underſtood that by treaty ſhe grants ſome favours, which are not extended to the United States.	They treat Great Britain as favourably as any nation whatever, as to ſhips, imports, and exports, and in all other reſpects.
She prohibits the importation of ſome American articles, in American ſhips, or any but Britiſh ſhips, into her European dominions.	They do not prohibit the importation of any Britiſh article in Britiſh veſſels, or any but American veſſels.
She does not permit an American citizen to import goods into ſome of her dominions, and to ſell them there, even in Britiſh veſſels. In other parts of her dominions, ſhe lays an extra tax on him, or his ſales.	They permit a Britiſh citizen to import goods into all their ports, in any veſſels, and to ſell them there without any extra tax on him, or his ſales.
She impoſes heavy duties on certain articles of the produce of the Amercian fiſheries, and inſupportable duties on others, in ſome parts of her dominions: and in other parts, ſhe prohibits their importation.	They impoſe only five per cent. on the produce of the Britiſh fiſheries (which duty is drawn back on exportation) and admit every article derived from them.
She prohibits the conſumption of ſome American articles, of which ſhe permits the importation.	They do not prohibit the conſumption of any Britiſh article whatever.
She prohibits the importation of American articles from foreign countries into the Britiſh dominions, even in her own ſhips.	They do not prohibit the importation of Britiſh articles from foreign countries in any ſhips.

Beſides, there is no country that contributes ſo much to the ſupport of the navy of Great Britain as the United States, by the employment they give to her ſhips. From Auguſt 1789, to Auguſt 1790, no leſs than 230,000 tons of Britiſh veſſels cleared from theſe States; which much exceed the quantity of veſſels they employed the ſame year in the Ruſſian trade. The whole Baltic trade of Great Britain, with all the countries of the various powers that lie within the Sound, important as it is to her, does not fill more. Their trade with Holland, France, Spain, and Portugal, does not altogether employ as many veſſels. Their whole fiſheries, American colonial trade, and Weſt India trade, do not employ and load more. And how, it may be aſked, are the United States requited for thus ſtrengthening the acknowledged bulwark of Great Britain, by annually giving a complete lading to the unequalled quantity of 230,000 tons of her private veſſels? The whole of the American veſſels, which have arrived in our ports in the ſame year, from all the countries and places ſubject to the Britiſh crown, amount to no more than 43,580 tons.

Our allies and friends, the French, have been more liberal in their policy. In the arret, paſſed in council, December 29, 1787, for encouraging the commerce of France

with the United States of America, it is ordained, That whale oil and ſpermaceti, the produce of the fiſheries of the United States, brought directly into France in French or American bottoms, ſhall be ſubject to a duty only of ſeven livres ten ſols (equal to ſix ſhillings and three pence ſterling) the barrel of five hundred and twenty weight; and whale fins ſhall be ſubject to a duty of only ſix livres thirteen ſols and four deniers (equal to five ſhillings and ſix pence halfpenny) the quintal, with ten ſols per livre on each of the ſaid duties; which ten ſols per livre was to ceaſe on the laſt day of December 1790.

The other fiſh oils and dry ſalted fiſh, produced and imported as aforeſaid, are not liable to pay any other or greater duties, than the moſt favoured nations are, or ſhall be ſubject to in the ſame caſe.

Corn, wheat, rye, rice, peas, beans, lentils, flax-ſeed, and other ſeeds, flour, trees and ſhrubs, pot and pearl aſhes, ſkins, and fur of beaver, raw hides, furs and peltry, and timber carried from the United States to France in French or American bottoms, are ſubject to a duty of one eighth per cent. on their value. Veſſels, proved to have been built in the United States, and ſold in France, or purchaſed by Frenchmen, are exempted from duties. Turpentine, tar and pitch, are liable to a duty of two and a half per cent. on their value. Arms may be imported into the United States, in French or American veſſels, on paying a duty of one eighth per cent. on their value; and gunpowder duty free, by giving a cautionary bond. Books and papers of all ſorts, imported as aforeſaid, are to be exempted from all duties, and entitled to a reſtitution of the fabrication duties on paper and paſte board. Permiſſion is given to ſtore all productions and merchandize of the United States, for ſix months, in all the ports of France open to the commerce of her colonies, ſubject to a duty only of one eighth per cent. His majeſty reſerves to himſelf the power of granting encouragement to favour the exportation of arms, hard ware, jewelry, bonetry, wool, cotton, coarſe wollens, ſmall draperies, and ſtuffs of cotton of all ſorts, and other merchandize of fabric, which may be ſent to the United States.

As to other merchandizes not enumerated in this act, imported and exported in French or American veſſels, and with reſpect to all commercial conventions whatever, his majeſty ordained, 'That the citizens of the United States enjoy in France, the ſame rights, privileges, and exemptions, with the ſubjects of his majeſty; ſaving what is provided in the ninth article hereof.*

'His late majeſty granted to the citizens and inhabitants of the United States all the advantages which are enjoyed, or which may be hereafter enjoyed, by the moſt favoured nations in his colonies of America: and moreover his majeſty enſured to the ſaid citizens and inhabitants of the United States, all the privileges and advantages which his own ſubjects of France enjoy or ſhall enjoy in Aſia, and in the ſeas leading thereto, provided always, that their veſſels ſhall have been fitted out and diſpatched in ſome port of the United States.'

Manufactures.] We now come to the ſubject of our Manufactures; a ſubject which has lately become in a high degree intereſting to the inhabitants of the United

* The article referred to ordains, that 'The admiralty duties on the veſſels of the United States entering into, or going out of the ports of France, ſhall not be levied but conformably with the edict of the month of June laſt, in the caſes therein provided, and with the letters patent of the tenth of January, 1770, for the objects for which no proviſion ſhall have been made by the ſaid edict: his majeſty reſerving to himſelf moreover, to make known his intentions as to the manner in which the ſaid duties ſhall be levied, whether in proportion to the tonnage of the veſſels, or otherwiſe, as alſo to ſimplify the ſaid duties of the admiralty, and to regulate them as far as ſhall be poſſible on the principles of reciprocity, as ſoon as the orders ſhall be completed, which were given by his majeſty according to the twenty-ſixth article of the ſaid act of the month of June laſt.

States, but which is too copious to be treated at large in a work of this kind.* I ſhall confine what I have to ſay in this place, on this article, to a few general obſervations on the advantages of encouraging manufactures in the United States; and to an enumeration of the articles already manufactured among us, and a ſpecification of thoſe branches which merit or require to be particularly encouraged.

The prevailing diſpoſition among the European nations, and particularly Great Britain, to reſtrict and embarraſs the external trade of the United States, have forced them to ſerious and ſalutary reflections on the importance and neceſſity of enlarging the ſphere of their domeſtic commerce, and creating a more extenſive demand at home, for the increaſing ſurplus of their agricultural produce, by adopting meaſures for increaſing the variety and quantity of their manufactures, and conſequently the number of manufacturers. This circumſtance, and the complete ſucceſs which has rewarded manufacturing enterpriſe in ſome valuable branches, and the promiſing proſpects which attend ſome leſs mature eſſays, have put the matter of expediency of encouraging manufactures in the United States, which was not long ſince deemed very queſtionable, beyond a doubt; and they alſo juſtify the belief, that the obſtacles to the increaſe of this ſpecies of employment among us are leſs formidable than have been generally imagined. That manufacturing eſtabliſhments would, in a variety of reſpects, be advantageous to theſe States, appears very evident from the following circumſtances:—

1. They would occaſion a proper diviſion of labour, than which there is ſcarcely any thing of greater moment in the œconomy of a nation. The ſeparation of occupations cauſes each to be carried to much greater perfection than it could poſſibly acquire, if they were blended; becauſe there would be a ſaving of time, by avoiding that loſs of it which is occaſioned by a frequent change from one operation to another of a different nature; and becauſe from a conſtant and undivided application to a ſingle object, there naturally reſults a greater ſkill and dexterity in accompliſhing it.

2. Manufacturing eſtabliſhments would be a means of extending the uſe of *machinery*; which, as it is an artificial aid to man, and, to all the purpoſes of labour, an increaſe of hands and of ſtrength, *without the expence of maintaining the labourer*, is of great importance in the general maſs of national induſtry. The cotton-mill, invented in England within the laſt twenty years, is a ſignal illuſtration of this general idea. In conſequence of it, all the different proceſſes for ſpinning cotton are performed by means of machines, which are put in motion by water, and attended chiefly by women and children; and by a ſmaller number of perſons, in the whole, than are requiſite in the ordinary mode of ſpinning. And the operations of this mill may be continued night and day with convenience and advantage. It is eaſy to conceive the prodigious effect of ſuch a machine. To this invention is to be attributed, eſſentially, the immenſe progreſs, which has been ſo ſuddenly made in Great Britain, in the various fabrics of cotton. The value of labour-ſaving machines has, in ſome degree, been

* Mr. Hamilton, Secretary of the Treaſury, in his "Report on the Subject of Manufactures," and the Writer (ſuppoſed to be Mr. Coxe, Aſſiſtant to the Secretary of the Treaſury) of "A brief Examination of Lord Sheffield's Obſervations on the Commerce of the United States," in two ſupplementary notes on American Manufactures, have given the fulleſt and moſt accurate information on this ſubject. To them the reader is referred, if he wiſhes for a more particular account of our manufactures than is here given.—They are my principal authorities for what follows.

† But it has been proved by ſome of the moſt reſpectable characters in Manchester, that nothing can be more prejudicial to the health and morals of women and children than night work, which has induced the well diſpoſed to work their Factories during the Day only.

known and experienced already among us; and by their general adoption in their moſt improved ſtate, to the cotton, flaxen, hempen, metal, and part of the woollen and ſilken branches, to all of which raw materials they apply, the United States might, in a very few years, acquire a deſireable degree of independency on Britiſh and other foreign manufactures. And as to advantageous ſituations for the erection of mills, and for the eſtabliſhment of manufactures in general, no country has more, and few ſo many as the United States: and we are far from being deficient in ingenious mechanics who are capable, not only of erecting machines already invented, and making improvements upon them, but alſo of inventing new machines of the moſt complicated and uſeful kind.

3. Another advantage reſulting from manufacturing eſtabliſhments is, they would afford employment to claſſes of people who are either not fully occupied, or wholly idle, and thereby give occaſion to the exertion of a greater quantity of induſtry, even by the *ſame number* of perſons. In general, women and children are rendered more uſeful, and the latter more early uſeful, by manufacturing eſtabliſhments, than they would otherwiſe be. Of the number employed in the cotton manufactories of Great Britain, it is computed that 4 in 7, nearly, are women and children; of whom the greateſt proportion are children; and many of them of a tender age.

4. The eſtabliſhment of manufactures would greatly increaſe the inducements which this country, in its preſent ſtate, holds out to foreigners to come among us, and become citizens. The oppreſſion that is experienced by the people in ſome parts of Europe, and the diſtreſſes that multitudes are brought into by the diſturbed ſtate of ſo many kingdoms, have excited a diſpoſition in many of their valuable citizens, to emigrate to a country where they may enjoy freedom and peace. The effect of multiplying the opportunities of employment to thoſe who emigrate, by manufactural eſtabliſhments, would probably be an increaſe of the number and extent of valuable acquiſitions to the population, arts, and induſtry of the country. This ſentiment, however, ought to be known, that while we think ourſelves juſtifiable, as it reſpects the cauſe of humanity, religion, and policy, in benefiting our country, by opening an aſylum for the oppreſſed and diſtreſſed citizens of Europe, we are very far from finding a pleaſure in thoſe affecting calamities which render a removal, on their part, deſireable.

European manufacturers, liſtening to the powerful invitations of a better price for their fabrics or their labour—of greater cheapneſs of proviſions and raw materials—of an exemption from the chief part of the taxes, burdens, and reſtraints, which they endure in the Old World—of freedom from thoſe diſtreſſes and embarraſſments into which they have been thrown by the diſturbances of Europe—of greater perſonal independence and conſequence, under the operations of a more equal government—and of what is far more precious than mere religious toleration, a *perfect equality* of *religious* privileges—encouraged, I ſay, by all theſe powerful inducements, manufacturers would probably flock from Europe to America, to purſue their reſpective occupations, if they were once made ſenſible of the advantages they would enjoy, and were inſpired with an aſſurance of encouragement and employment.

Beſides, the advantages already enumerated, which would reſult to theſe States from the encouragement of manufactures, we may add, that in this way, greater ſcope would be afforded for the exerciſe of the various talents and diſpoſitions of men, a more ample field opened for enterpriſe; which circumſtances are the more important, as there ſeems evidently to be, in the genius of the people of this country, a remarkable aptitude for mechanical inventions and improvements, and a ſingular ſpirit of enterpriſe. The increaſe of manufactures, alſo, would be a mean of creating, in ſome

inſtances

inſtances a new, and ſecuring in all, a more certain and ſteady demand for the ſurplus produce of the ſoil. This circumſtance, as it is a principal mean by which the eſtabliſhment of manufactures contributes to an augmentation of the produce or revenue of a country, and has an immediate and direct relation to the proſperity of agriculture, is among the moſt important advantages enumerated.

But there are other conſiderations which ſerve to fortify the idea, that the encouragement of manufactures is the intereſt of all parts of the union. If the northern and middle States ſhould be the principal ſcenes of ſuch eſtabliſhments, they would immediately benefit the more ſouthern, by creating a demand for productions, ſome of which they have in common with the other States, and others of which either are peculiar to them, or more abundant, or of better quality than elſewhere. Theſe productions principally are, timber, flax, hemp, cotton, wool, raw ſilk, indigo, iron, lead, furs, hides, ſkins, and coals; of theſe articles, cotton and indigo are peculiar to the ſouthern States; flax and hemp are, or may be, raiſed in greater abundance there than in the more northern States; and the wool of Virginia is ſaid to be of a better quality than that of any other State, which is probable, as Virginia embraces the ſame latitudes of the fineſt wool countries in Europe. The climate of the ſouth is alſo better adapted to the production of ſilk. The extenſive cultivation of cotton can hardly be expected, but from the previous eſtabliſhment of domeſtic manufactories of the article; and the ſureſt encouragement and vent for the others would reſult from ſimilar eſtabliſhments in regard to them.

The moſt material objection that has been made to the purſuit of manufactures in the United States, is the impracticability of ſucceſs, ariſing from ſcarcity of hands, dearneſs of labour, and want of capital. The laſt of theſe circumſtances, want of capital, has no real foundation. With regard to the ſcarcity of hands, the fact muſt be applied, with no ſmall qualification, to certain parts of the United States. There are large diſtricts, which may be conſidered as pretty fully peopled; and which, notwithſtanding a continual drain for diſtant ſettlements, are thickly interſperſed with flouriſhing and increaſing towns.—Connecticut and Maſſachuſetts contain, on an average, as many as 55 inhabitants to every ſquare mile; and the county of Eſſex, in Maſſachuſetts, will average 135 inhabitants to every ſquare mile. This latter diſtrict has already reached the point at which the complaint of ſcarcity of hands ceaſes; and the abovementioned States at large are not far remote from, and are approaching faſt towards it: and having, perhaps, fewer attractions to agriculture than ſome other more ſouthern and temperate parts of the union, they exhibit a proportionably ſtronger propenſity to the purſuit of manufactures, which is exemplified in the maturity which ſome branches have already attained in theſe diſtricts.

But there are circumſtances which have been already noticed with another view, that materially diminiſh every where the effect of a ſcarcity of hands. Theſe circumſtances are the great uſe which may be made of women and children—the vaſt extenſion given, by late improvements, to the employment of machines, which, ſubſtituting the agency of fire and water, has prodigiouſly leſſened the neceſſity for manual labour—and laſtly, the attraction of foreign emigrants. In all our populous towns there is already a large proportion of ingenious and valuable workmen in different arts and trades, who, by expatiating from Europe, have improved their own condition, and added to the induſtry and wealth of the United States. It is a natural inference, from the experience we have already had, that as ſoon as the United States ſhall preſent the countenance of a ſerious proſecution of manufactures—as ſoon as foreign artiſts ſhall be made ſenſible, that the ſtate of things hee affords a moral certainty

tainty of employment and encouragement, competent numbers of European workmen will tranſplant themſelves, ſo as effectually to enſure the ſucceſs of the deſign. Theſe circumſtances ſufficiently obviate the objection which ariſes from a ſcarcity of hands.

But, to all the arguments which are brought to evince the impracticability of ſucceſs, in manufacturing eſtabliſhments in the United States, it would be a ſufficient anſwer, to refer to the experience of what has been already done. It is certain that ſeveral important branches have grown up and flouriſhed, with a rapidity which ſurprizes; affording an encouraging aſſurance of ſucceſs in future attempts. Of theſe the following are the moſt conſiderable, viz. Of *Skins*—Tanned and tawed leathers, dreſſed ſkins, ſhoes, boots, and ſlippers, harneſs and ſaddlery of all kinds, portmanteaus and trunks, leather breeches, gloves, muffs and tippets, parchment and glue.—Of *Iron*—Bar and ſheet iron, ſteel, nail rods and nails, implements of huſbandry, ſtoves, pots and other houſehold utenſils, the ſteel and iron work of carriages and for ſhip building, anchors, ſcale beams and weights, and various tools of artificers, arms of different kinds.—Of *Wood*—Ships, cabinet wares, and turnery, wool and cotton cards, and other machinery for manufactures and huſbandry, mathematical inſtruments, coopers wares of every kind.—Of *Flax* and *Hemp*—Cables, ſail cloth, cordage, twine and packthread.—Of *Clay*—Bricks and coarſe tiles, and potters wares.—Ardent ſpirits and malt liquors.—Writing and printing paper, ſheathing and wrapping paper, paſte boards, fullers or preſs papers, and paper hangings.—Hats of fur and wool, and mixtures of both.—Womens ſtuff and ſilk ſhoes.—Refined ſugars.—Chocolate.—Oil of animals and ſeeds, ſoap, ſpermaceti and tallow candles—Copper and braſs wares, particularly utenſils for diſtillers, ſugar refiners and brewers, hand irons and other articles for houſehold uſe—clocks, philoſophical apparatus—Tin wares of almoſt all kinds for ordinary uſe—Carriages of all kinds—Snuff, chewing and ſmoking tobacco—Starch and hair powder—Lampblack and other painters colours—Gunpowder.

Beſides the manufacture of theſe articles, which are carried on as regular trades, and have attained to a conſiderable degree of maturity, there is a vaſt ſcene of houſehold manufacturing, which contributes very largely to the ſupply of the community. Theſe domeſtic manufactures are proſecuted as well in the ſouthern, as in the middle and northern States; great quantities of coarſe cloths, coatings, ſerges and flannels, linſey woolſeys, hoſiery of wool, cotton and thread, coarſe fuſtians, jeans and muſlins, checked and ſtriped cotton and linen goods, bedticks, coverlets, and counterpanes, tow linens, coarſe ſhirtings, ſheetings, towelling and table linen, and various mixtures of wool and cotton, and of cotton and flax, are made in the houſehold way, and in many inſtances, to an extent not only ſufficient for the ſupply of the families in which they are made, but for ſale, and even in ſome caſes for exportation. It is computed in a number of diſtricts, that two thirds, three fourths, four fifths, and in ſome places even a greater proportion, of all the cloathing of the inhabitants is made by themſelves. In a moral and political view theſe facts are highly pleaſing and intereſting.

The above enumeration does not comprehend all the articles that are manufactured as regular trades. The following articles, though manufactured in a leſs extenſive degree, and ſome of them in leſs perfection, ought to be added—Gold, ſilver, pewter, lead, glaſs and ſtone wares of many kinds, books in various languages, printing types and preſſes, bells, combs, buttons, corn fans, ploughs and all other implements of huſbandry. Some of theſe are ſtill in their infancy, as are others not enumerated, but which are attended with favourable appearances. There are other articles alſo of very

very great importance, which, though ſtrictly ſpeaking manufactures, are omitted, as being immediately connected with huſbandry; ſuch are flour and meal of all kinds, pot and pearl aſhes, pitch, tar, turpentine, maple ſugar, wine, and the like.

Having pointed out the advantages of encouraging manufactures in the United States, and enumerated the articles manufactured, it remains that we ſpecify ſome of the articles which merit or require encouragement. In making the ſelection of objects, five circumſtances are entitled to particular attention: the capacity of the country to furniſh the raw material—the degree in which the nature of the manufacture admits of a ſubſtitute for manual labour in machinery—the faculty of execution—the extenſiveneſs of the uſes to which the article can be applied—its ſubſerviency to other intereſts, particularly the great one of national defence. And of this deſcription, none are more eſſential in their kinds, or more extenſive in their uſes, than the manufactures of iron, ſteel, copper, braſs, lead, coal, wood, ſkins, grain, flax and hemp, cotton, wool, ſilk, glaſs, gunpowder, paper, printed books, refined ſugars, chocolate, wines, and maple ſugar. Theſe are the moſt important of the ſeveral kinds of manufactures, which appear to require, and at the ſame time to be the moſt proper for public encouragement, either by bounties on the articles manufactured, duties on imported articles of the ſame kind, or drawbacks of the duties upon the imported raw materials, according to the nature of the caſe.

We have mentioned the manufactures of wine and maple ſugar, as objects worthy of legiſlative attention and encouragement in the United States. As to the firſt, ſucceſsful experiments have already been made, by ſome new ſettlers of French people, on the river Ohio,* which evince the practicability of the manufacture of wines of an excellent quality: and as grapes are the ſpontaneous production of all the United States, and, by culture, might be raiſed in any deſirable quantity, and in great perfection, this manufacture, with proper legiſlative encouragement, might be carried on to ſuch an extent, as greatly to diminiſh, and in time, perhaps, wholly to preclude foreign importations.

The manufacture of maple ſugar, though it has for many years been carried on, in the ſmall way, in the eaſtern States, has but very lately become an object of public attention.—The eaſtern and middle States furniſh a ſufficient number of maple trees to ſupply the United States with the article of ſugar; and, it is aſſerted, of a quality "equal, in the opinion of competent judges, to the beſt ſugars imported from the Weſt India Iſlands." A perſon, whoſe judgement on this ſubject is much to be relied on, as well from his experience in the buſineſs, as his eſtabliſhed character for candor and integrity, has given it as his opinion, "That four active and induſtrious men, well provided with materials and conveniencies proper for carrying on the buſineſs, may make, in a common ſeaſon, which laſts from four to ſix weeks, 4000lbs. of ſugar, that is 1000lbs. to each man." If ſuch be the amazing product of ſix weeks labour of an individual, what may be expected from the labours of the many thouſands of people who now inhabit, and may hereafter inhabit, the extenſive tracts of country which abound with the ſugar maple tree? This manufacture is ſo important and intereſting, that it reſpects the wealth and proſperity of our country, and the cauſe of humanity, that it deſerves the countenance of every good citizen, and even national encouragement. No leſs than 18 millions of pounds of Weſt India ſugars, manufactured by the hands of *ſlaves*, is annually imported into and conſumed in the United States. In proportion as this quantity can be leſſened by our own manufacturers, by

* See page 144.

by the hands of *freemen*, the wealth of the United States will be increaſed, and the cauſe of humanity promoted,

MILITARY STRENGTH.] Standing armies are deemed inconſiſtent with a republican government; we of courſe have none.* Our military ſtrength lies in a well-diſciplined militia. According to the late cenſus, there are in the United States, 814,000 men of 16 years old and upwards, whites. Suppoſe that the ſuperannuated, the officers of government, and the other claſſes of people who are excuſed from military duty, amount to 114,000, there will remain a militia of 700,000 men. Of theſe a great proportion are well-diſciplined, veteran troops. No nation or kingdom in Europe can bring into the field an army of equal numbers, more formidable than can be raiſed in the United States.

FINANCES.] The Revenue of the United States is raiſed from duties on the tonnage of veſſels entered in the United States, and on imported goods, wares, and merchandize, and from an exciſe on various articles of conſumption. The amount of the duties ariſing on the tonnage of veſſels, for the year commencing October 1ſt, 1790, and ending September 30th, 1791, amounted to 145,347 dollars. The duties ariſing on goods, wares, and merchandize, for the ſame year, amounted to 3,006,722 dollars. The whole amount of the revenue from the exciſe is not accurately known. In Maſſachuſetts it amounts annually to 200,000 dollars. The old Congreſs, in their laſt requiſitions, conſidered Maſſachuſetts as a *ſixth* part. If this proportion be accurate, the whole amount of the exciſe will be 1,200,000 dollars.

This revenue is appropriated to the purpoſes of ſupporting the civil and military eſtabliſhments, to the payment of the intereſt, and the diminution of the principal of the Public Debt.

In the year following, October 1ſt, 1789, the expenſes and revenue of government were as follows,

	Expenſes. *Dols. Cts.*		Revenue. *Dols. Cts.*
Civil liſt	299,276. 53	Duties on Imports	1,903,790. 48
Additional expenſe	50,756. 7	Duties on Tonnage	165,465. 93
War Department	390,199. 54		
Total	740,232, 14	Total	2,069,175. 47

From a report of the Secretary of the Treaſury, of the 23d of January 1792, it appears that the whole amount of the *domeſtic* debt of the United States, principal and intereſt, which has been ſubſcribed to the loan propoſed concerning that debt, by the act intituled, "An act making proviſion for the debt of the United States," is

Dollars 31,797,481. 22

which, purſuant to the terms of that act, has been converted into ſtock

bearing an immediate intereſt of 6 per cent. - -	14,177,450. 43
Stock bearing the like intereſt from Jan. 1, 1801 -	7,088,727. 79
Stock bearing an immediate intereſt of 3 per cent. -	10,531,33.
Making together *Dollars*	31,797,481. 22

* Upwards of 5000 men have lately been raiſed, for *three years*, for the defence of the frontiers of the United States.

Of

Of which there ſtands to the credit of the Truſtees of the ſinking fund, in conſequence of purchaſes of the public debt made under their direction, the ſum of *Dollars* 1,131,364. 76

The unſubſcribed reſidue of the ſaid debt amounts to 10,616,604. 65

The debts of the reſpective States collectively are eſtimated to amount to 25,403,362

of which, 21,500,000 dollars have been aſſumed, and 17,072,334$\frac{19}{100}$ ſubſcribed, agreeably to act of Congreſs of 4th of Auguſt 1790.

The amount of a debt due to certain foreign officers, who ſerved the United States during the late war, with arrears of intereſt, is 220,646. 81

Foreign Debt.

The whole amount of the Foreign Debt of the United States is about 12 million dollars; of which about 6,900,000 dollars are due to France, and the reſt to Holland. The Executive has been empowered to make an additional Loan in Holland, ſufficient to pay the debt to France; and meaſures for that purpoſe have been in agitation in Holland.

The act, making proviſion for the debt of the United States, has appropriated the proceeds of the weſtern lands as a fund for the diſcharge of the public debt. And the act, making proviſion for the reduction of the public debt, has appropriated all the ſurplus of the duties on imports and tonnage, to the end of the year 1790, to the purpoſe of purchaſing the debt at the market price; and has authorized the Preſident to borrow the further ſum of two millions of dollars for the ſame object. Theſe meaſures ſerve to indicate the intention of the legiſlature, as early and as faſt as poſſible, to provide for the extinguiſhment of the exiſting debt.

The preſent eligible ſituation of the United States, compared with that of Europe at large, as it reſpects taxes or contributions for the payment of all public charges, appears from the following ſtatement, furniſhed by a gentleman of acknowledged abilities. In the United States, the average proportion of his earnings which each citizen pays for the ſupport of the civil, military, and naval eſtabliſhments, and for the diſcharge of the intereſt of the public debts of his country, is about *one dollar* and a *quarter*; equal to *two days* labour, nearly; that is, 5 millions of dollars to 4 millions of people. In Great Britain, France, Holland, Spain, Portugal, Germany, &c. the taxes for theſe objects, on an average, amount to about *ſix dollars* and a *quarter* to each perſon. Hence it appears, that in the United States we enjoy the bleſſings of free government and mild laws; of perſonal liberty, and protection of property, for one fifth part of the ſum for each individual, which is paid in Europe for the purchaſe of public benefits of a ſimilar nature, and too generally without attaining their objects: for leſs than *one fifth*, indeed, as in European countries in general, 10 days labour, on an average, do not amount to 6¼ dollars. In this eſtimate proper allowances are made for public debts. The Indian war in the United States, at preſent, requires nearly half a million of dollars annually, extra; but this, being temporary only, is not taken into the eſtimate.

From the beſt data that can be collected, the taxes in the United States, for county, town and pariſh purpoſes; for the ſupport of ſchools, the poor, roads, &c. appear to be conſiderably leſs than in thoſe countries; and perhaps the objects of them, except in roads, is attained in a more perfect degree. Great preciſion is not to be expected in theſe calculations; but we have ſufficient documents to prove that we are not far from the truth. The proportion in the United States is well aſcertained; and with equal accuracy in France, by Mr. Neckar; and in England, Holland, Spain, and other kingdoms in Europe, by him, Zimmermann, and other writers on the ſubject.

For the objects of the late war and civil government, in the United States, nearly 12 millions of dollars were annually raiſed, for nine years ſucceſſively, apportioned on the number of inhabitants at that period, which amounted to a little ſhort of *four dollars* to each perſon. This was raiſed principally by direct taxes. Perhaps a contribution of *ſix* dollars a perſon would not have been ſo ſeverely felt, had a part of it been raiſed by impoſt and exciſe. Theſe ſums, raiſed for the war, by the free exertions of the people, obviate all ſuch objections as aſſert that the United States are poor: at the ſame time they evince that their ſituation is eligible and proſperous, by ſhewing how large a proportion of their earnings, the people, in general, can apply to their private purpoſes.

Bank of the United States.] This Bank was incorporated by act of Congreſs, February 25th, 1791, by the name and ſtile of *The Preſident, Directors, and Company of the Bank of the United States.* The amount of the capital ſtock is 10 million dollars, one fourth of which is in gold and ſilver; the other three fourths, in that part of the public debt of the United States, which, at the time of payment, bears an accruing intereſt of 6 per cent. per annum. Two millions of this capital ſtock of 10 millions, is ſubſcribed by the Preſident, in behalf of the United States. The Stockholders are to continue a corporate body by the act, until the 4th day of March 1811; and are capable, in law, of holding property to an amount not exceeding, in the whole, 15 million dollars, including the aforeſaid 10 million dollars, capital ſtock. The corporation may not at any time owe, whether by bond, bill or note, or other contract, more than 10 million dollars, over and above the monies then actually depoſited in the Bank for ſafe keeping, unleſs the contracting of any greater debt ſhall have been previouſly authoriſed by a law of the United States. The corporation is not at liberty to receive more than 6 per cent. per annum for or upon its loans or diſcounts; nor to purchaſe any public debt whatever, or to deal or trade, directly or indirectly, in any thing except bills of exchange, gold or ſilver bullion, or in the ſale of goods really and truly pledged for money lent, and not redeemed in due time, or of goods which ſhall be the produce of its bonds; they may ſell any part of the public debt of which its ſtock ſhall be compoſed. Loans, not exceeding 100,000 dollars, may be made to the United States, and to particular States, of a ſum not exceeding 50,000 dollars.

Officers for the purpoſes of diſcount and depoſit only, may be eſtabliſhed within the United States, upon the ſame terms, and in the ſame manner, as ſhall be practiſed at the Bank. Four of theſe offices, called *Branch Banks*, have been already eſtabliſhed, viz. at Boſton, New York, Baltimore, and Charleſton. The faith of the United States is pledged that no other bank ſhall be eſtabliſhed by any future law of the United States, during the continuance of the above Corporation. The great benefits of this Bank, as it reſpects public credit and commerce, have already been experienced.

Religion.] The conſtitution of the United States provides againſt the making of any law reſpecting an eſtabliſhment of religion, or prohibiting the free exerciſe of it. And in the conſtitutions of the reſpective States religious liberty is a fundamental principle. In this important article, our government is diſtinguiſhed from that of every other nation, if we except France. Religion here is placed on its proper baſis; without the feeble and unwarranted aid of the civil power, it is left to be ſupported by its own evidence, by the lives of its profeſſors, and the Almighty care of its Divine Author.

All being thus left at liberty to chooſe their own religion, the people, as might eaſily be ſuppoſed, have varied in their choice. The bulk of the people would denominate themſelves Chriſtians; a ſmall proportion of them are Jews; ſome plead the ſufficiency of natural religion, and reject revelation as unneceſſary and fabulous; and

many, we have reaſon to believe, have yet their religion to chooſe. Chriſtians profeſs their religion under various forms, and with different ideas of its doctrines, ordinances, and precepts. The following denominations of Chriſtians are more or leſs numerous in the United States, viz. Congregationaliſts, Preſbyterians, Dutch Reformed Church, Epiſcopalians, Baptiſts, Quakers or Friends, Methodiſts, Roman Catholics, German Lutherans, German Calviniſts or Preſbyterians, Moravians, Tunkers, Mennoniſts, Univerſaliſts, and Shakers.

Of theſe the CONGREGATIONALISTS are the moſt numerous. In New England alone, beſides thoſe which are ſcattered through the middle and ſouthern States, there are not leſs than 1000 congregations of this denomination, viz.

In New Hampſhire - - -	200
Maſſachuſetts - - -	440
Rhode Iſland - - -	13
Connecticut - - -	197
Vermont (ſay) - - -	150
Total -	1000

It is difficult to ſay what is the preſent eccleſiaſtical conſtitution of the Congregational churches. Formerly their eccleſiaſtical proceedings were regulated, in Maſſachuſetts, by the Cambridge Platform of church diſcipline, eſtabliſhed by the ſynod, in 1648; and in Connecticut, by the Saybrook Platform of diſcipline; but ſince the revolution, leſs regard has been paid to theſe conſtitutions, and in many inſtances they are wholly diſuſed. Congregationaliſts are pretty generally agreed in this opinion, that "Every church or particular congregation of viſible ſaints, in goſpel order, being furniſhed with a Paſtor or Biſhop, and walking together in truth and peace, has received from the Lord Jeſus full power and authority, eccleſiaſtical within itſelf, regularly to adminiſter all the ordinances of Chriſt, and is not under any other eccleſiaſtical juriſdiction whatſoever." Their churches, with ſome exceptions, diſclaim the word *Independent*, as applicable to them, and claim a fitterly relation to each other.

From the anſwer of the elders, and other meſſengers of the churches aſſembled at Boſton, in the year 1662, to the queſtions propoſed to them by order of the General Court, it appears that the churches, at that period, profeſſed to hold communion with each other in the following acts, viz.

1. "In hearty care and prayer one for another.—2. In affording relief, by communicating of their gifts in temporal or ſpiritual neceſſities.—3. In maintaining unity and peace, by giving account one to another of their public actions, when it is properly deſired; to ſtrengthen one another in their regular adminiſtrations; in particular by a concurrent teſtimony againſt perſons juſtly cenſured.—4. To ſeek and accept help from, and afford help to each other, in caſe of diviſions and contentions, whereby the peace of any church is diſturbed; in matters of more than ordinary importance, as the ordination, inſtallation, removal, and depoſition of paſtors or biſhops; in doubtful and difficult queſtions and controverſies, doctrinal or practical, that may ariſe; and for the rectifying of mal-adminiſtration, and healing of errors and ſcandals that are not healed among themſelves.—5. In taking notice, with a ſpirit of love and faithfulneſs, of the troubles and difficulties, errors and ſcandals of another church, and to adminiſter help (when the caſe manifeſtly calls for it) though they ſhould ſo neglect their own good and duty, as not to ſeek it.—6. In admoniſhing one another, when there is cauſe for it; and after a due courſe of means, patiently to withdraw from a church, or peccant party therein, obſtinately perſiſting in error or ſcandal."

A conſociation of churches was, at the period mentioned, conſidered as neceſſary to a communion of churches, (the former being but an agreement to maintain the latter) and therefore a duty. The conſociation of churches they defined to be, "Their mutual and ſolemn agreement to exerciſe communion in ſuch acts as aforeſaid (meaning the acts of communion above recited) amongſt themſelves, with ſpecial reference to thoſe churches which, by Providence, are planted in a convenient vicinity, though with liberty reſerved without offence, to make uſe of others, as the nature of the caſe, or the advantage of the opportunity may lead thereunto."

The miniſters of the Congregational order are pretty generally aſſociated for the purpoſes of licenſing candidates for the miniſtry, and friendly intercourſe and improvement; but there are few Congregational churches that are conſociated on the above principles; and the practice has very generally gone into diſuſe, and with it the communion of churches in moſt of the acts before recited. In Connecticut and the weſtern parts of Maſſachuſetts, the churches have deviated leſs from their original conſtitution. The degeneracy of the Congregational churches from that order, fellowſhip, and harmony, in diſcipline, doctrines, and friendly advice and aſſiſtance in eccleſiaſtical matters, which formerly ſubſiſted between them, is matter of deep regret to many, not to ſay to moſt people of that denomination. A reformation, or a return to a practice conformable to the originial principles of the Congregational churches, is an event more earneſtly deſired, than confidently expected.

Congregationaliſts are divided in opinion reſpecting the doctrines of the goſpel, and the proper ſubjects of its ordinances. The body of them are Calviniſts; a reſpectable proportion are what may be denominated Hopkenſian Calviniſts; beſides theſe, ſome are Arminians, ſome Arians, a few Socinians, and a number who have adopted Dr. Chauncy's ſcheme of the final ſalvation of all men.*

Next to the Congregationaliſts, PRESBYTERIANS are the moſt numerous denomination of Chriſtians in the United States. They have a conſtitution by which they regulate all their eccleſiaſtical proceedings, and a confeſſion of faith, which all church officers and church members are required to ſubſcribe. Hence they have preſerved a ſingular uniformity in their religious ſentiments, and have conducted their eccleſiaſtical affairs with a great degree of order and harmony.

The body of the preſbyterians inhabit the middle and ſouthern States, and are united under the ſame conſtitution. By this conſtitution, the Preſbyterians who are governed by it, are divided into five Synods and ſeventeen Preſbyteries; viz. Synod of New York, 5 preſbyteries, 94 congregations, 61 ſettled miniſters.—2. Synod of Philadelphia, 5 preſbyteries, 92 congregations, 60 ſettled miniſters, beſides the miniſters and congregations belonging to Baltimore preſbytery.—3. Synod of Virginia, 4 preſbyteries, 70 congregations, 40 ſettled miniſters, excluſive of the congregations and miniſters of Tranſylvania preſbytery.—4. Synod of the Carolinas, 3 preſbyteries, 82 congregations, 42 ſettled miniſters, the miniſters and congregations in Abington preſbytery not included. If we ſuppoſe the number of congregations in the preſbyteries which made no returns to their ſynods, to be 100, and the number of ſettled miniſters in the ſame to be 40, the whole number of preſbyterian congregations in this connection will be 438, which are ſupplied by 223 ſettled miniſters, and between 70 and 80 candidates, beſides a number of ordained miniſters who have no particular charges. Each of the four ſynods meet annually; beſides which they have a joint meeting, by their commiſſioners, once a year, in General Aſſembly at Philadelphia.

* The reader will find a well-digeſted ſummary of the peculiar ſentiments of each of theſe ſects, in H. Adams's "View of Religions."

The

The Preſbyterian churches are governed by congregational, preſbyterial, and ſynodical aſſemblies: theſe aſſemblies poſſeſs no civil juriſdiction. Their power is wholly moral or ſpiritual, and that only miniſterial or declarative. They poſſeſs the right of requiring obedience to the laws of Chriſt, and of excluding the diſobedient from the privileges of the church; and the powers requiſite for obtaining evidence and inflicting cenſure; but the higheſt puniſhment, to which their authority extends, is to exclude the contumacious and impenitent from the congregation of believers.

The *Church Seſſion*, which is the congregational aſſembly of judicatory, conſiſts of the miniſter or miniſters and elders of a particular congregation. This body is inveſted with the ſpiritual government of the congregation; and have power to inquire into the knowledge and Chriſtian conduct of all its members; to call before them offenders and witneſſes, of their own denomination; to admoniſh, ſuſpend, or exclude from the ſacraments, ſuch as deſerve theſe cenſures; to concert meaſures for promoting the ſpiritual intereſts of the congregation, and to appoint delegates to the higher judicatories of the church.

A *Preſbytery* conſiſts of all the miniſters, and one ruling elder from each congregation, within a certain diſtrict. Three miniſters and three elders, conſtitutionally convened, are competent to do buſineſs. This body have cognizance of all things that regard the welfare of the particular churches within their bounds, which are not cognizable by the ſeſſion. Alſo, they have a power of receiving and iſſuing appeals from the ſeſſions—of examining and licenſing candidates for the miniſtry—of ordaining, ſettling, removing, or judging miniſters—of reſolving queſtions of doctrine or diſcipline—of condemning erroneous opinions, that injure the purity or peace of the church—of viſiting particular churches, to inquire into their ſtate, and redreſs the evils that may have ariſen in them—of uniting or dividing congregations, at the requeſt of the people, and whatever elſe pertains to the ſpiritual concerns of the churches under their care.

A *Synod* is a convention of ſeveral preſbyteries. The ſynod have power to admit and judge of appeals, regularly brought up from the preſbyteries—to give their judgement on all references made to them of an eccleſiaſtical kind—to correct and regulate the proceedings of preſbyteries—to take effectual care that preſbyteries obſerve the conſtitution of the church, &c.

The higheſt judicatory of the Preſbyterian church is ſtiled *The General Aſſembly of the Preſbyterian Church in the United States of America.* This grand Aſſembly is to conſiſt of an equal delegation of biſhops and elders from each preſbytery within their juriſdiction, by the title of *Commiſſioners to the General Aſſembly.* Fourteen commiſſioners make a quorum. The General Aſſembly conſtitute the bond of union, peace, correſpondence, and mutual confidence among all their churches; and have power to receive and iſſue all appeals and references which may regularly be brought before them from inferior judicatories—to regulate and correct the proceedings of the ſynods, &c. To the General Aſſembly alſo belongs the power of conſulting, reaſoning, and judging in controverſies reſpecting doctrine and diſcipline; of reproving, warning, or bearing teſtimony againſt error in doctrine, or immorality in practice in any church, preſbytery, or ſynod—of correſponding with foreign churches—of putting a ſtop to ſchiſmatical contentions and diſputations—and in general of recommending and attempting reformation of manners, and of promoting charity, truth, and holineſs in all the churches—and alſo of erecting new ſynods when they judge it neceſſary.

The confeſſion of faith adopted by the Preſbyterian church, embraces what are called the Calviniſtic doctrines; and none who diſbelieve theſe doctrines are admitted into

into fellowſhip with their churches. The General Aſſembly of the Preſbyterian church hold a friendly correſpondence with the General Aſſociation in Connecticut, by letter, and by admitting delegates from their reſpective bodies to ſit in each other's general meetings.

Diſconnected with the churches of which we have been ſpeaking, there are four ſmall preſbyteries in New England, who have a ſimilar form of eccleſiaſtical government and diſcipline, and profeſs the ſame doctrines.

Beſides theſe, there is the "Aſſociate Preſbytery of Pennſylvania," having a ſeparate eccleſiaſtical juriſdiction in America, and belonging to the Aſſociate Synod of Edinburgh, which they declare is the only eccleſiaſtical body, either in Britain or America, with which they are agreed concerning the doctrine and order of the church of Chriſt, and concerning the duty of confeſſing the truth, and bearing witneſs to it by a public teſtimony againſt the errors of the times. This connection is not to be underſtood as indicating ſubjection to a foreign juriſdiction; but is preſerved for the ſake of maintaining unity with their brethren in the profeſſion of the Chriſtian faith, and ſuch an intercourſe as might be of ſervice to the intereſts of religion. This ſect of Preſbyterians are commonly known by the name of *Seceders*, on account of their ſeceding from the national church in Scotland, 1736.*

The Dutch Reformed churches in the United States, who maintain the doctrine of the ſynod of Dort, held in 1618, are between 70 and 80 in number, conſtituting ſix claſſes, which form one ſynod, ſtyled "The Dutch Reformed Synod of New York and New Jerſey." The claſſes conſiſt of miniſters and ruling elders; each claſs delegates two miniſters and an elder to repreſent them in ſynod. From the firſt planting of the Dutch churches in New York and New Jerſey, they have, under the direction of the claſſis of Amſterdam, been formed exactly upon the plan of the eſtabliſhed church of Holland as far as that is eccleſiaſtical. A ſtrict correſpondence is maintained between the Dutch Reformed Synod of New York and New Jerſey, and the ſynod of North Holland and the claſſis of Amſterdam. The acts of their ſynods are mutually exchanged every year, and mutual advice is given and received in diſputes reſpecting doctrinal points and church diſcipline.

The Protestant Episcopal Church in the United States (the churches of that denomination in New England excepted) met in Convention at Philadelphia, October 1785, and reviſed the book of common prayer, and adminiſtration of the ſacraments, and other rites and ceremonies, with a view to render the liturgy conſiſtent with the American Revolution. But this reviſed form was adopted by none of the churches, except one or two in Philadelphia.

In October 1789, at another meeting of their convention, a plan of union among all the Proteſtant Epiſcopal churches in the United States of America was agreed upon and ſettled; and an adequate repreſentation from the ſeveral States being preſent, they again reviſed the book of common prayer, which is now publiſhed and generally adopted by their churches. They alſo agreed upon and publiſhed 17 canons for the government of their church, the firſt of which declares that "there ſhall, in this church, be three orders in the miniſtry, viz. Biſhops, Prieſts, and Deacons."

At the ſame time they agreed upon a Conſtitution, which provides that there ſhall be a general convention of the Proteſtant Epiſcopal Church in the United States, on the ſecond Tueſday of September, of every third year from 1789—That each ſtate is entitled to a repreſentation of both the clergy and laity, or either of them, and may

* See H. Adams's "View of Religions," Article, *Seceders*.

ſend

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		Miniſters		
States	Churches	*ordained*	*licenſed*	Members
New Hampſhire	32	23	17	1732
Maſſachuſetts	107	95	31	7116
Rhode Iſland	38	37	39	3502
Connecticut	55	44	21	3214
Vermont	34	21	15	1610
New York	57	53	30	3987
New Jerſey	26	20	9	2279
Pennſylvania	28	26	7	1231
Delaware	7	9	1	409
Maryland	12	8	3	776
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States

* Mr. John Aſplund

into fellowſhip with their churches. The General Aſſembly of the Preſbyterian church hold a friendly correſpondence with the General Aſſociation in Connecticut, by letter, and by admitting delegates from their reſpective bodies to ſit in each other's general meetings.

Diſconnected with the churches of which we have been ſpeaking, there are four ſmall preſbyteries in New England, who have a ſimilar form of eccleſiaſtical government and diſcipline, and profeſs the ſame doctrines.

Beſides theſe, there is the "Aſſociate Preſbytery of Pennſylvania," having a ſeparate eccleſiaſtical juriſdiction in America, and belonging to the Aſſociate Synod of Edinburgh, which they declare is the only eccleſiaſtical body, either in Britain or America, with which they are agreed concerning the doctrine and order of the church of Chriſt, and concerning the duty of confeſſing the truth, and bearing witneſs to it by a public teſtimony againſt the errors of the times. This connection is not to be underſtood as indicating ſubjection to a foreign juriſdiction; but is preſerved for the ſake of maintaining unity with their brethren in the profeſſion of the Chriſtian faith, and ſuch an intercourſe as might be of ſervice to the intereſts of religion. This ſect of Preſbyterians are commonly known by the name of *Seceders*, on account of their ſeceding from the national church in Scotland, 1736.*

The DUTCH REFORMED churches in the United States, who maintain the doctrine of the ſynod of Dort, held in 1618, are between 70 and 80 in number, conſtituting ſix claſſes, which form one ſynod, ſtyled "The Dutch Reformed Synod of New York and New Jerſey." The claſſes conſiſt of miniſters and ruling elders; each claſs delegates two miniſters and an elder to repreſent them in ſynod. From the firſt planting of the Dutch churches in New York and New Jerſey, they have, under the direction of the claſſis of Amſterdam, been formed exactly upon the plan of the eſtabliſhed church of Holland as far as that is eccleſiaſtical. A ſtrict correſpondence is maintained between the Dutch Reformed Synod of New York and New Jerſey, and the ſynod of North Holland and the claſſis of Amſterdam. The acts of their ſynods are mutually exchanged every year, and mutual advice is given and received in diſputes reſpecting doctrinal points and church diſcipline.

The PROTESTANT EPISCOPAL Church in the United States (the churches of that denomination in New England excepted) met in Convention at Philadelphia, October 1785, and reviſed the book of common prayer, and adminiſtration of the ſacraments, and other rites and ceremonies, with a view to render the liturgy conſiſtent with the American Revolution. But this reviſed form was adopted by none of the churches, except one or two in Philadelphia.

In October 1789, at another meeting of their convention, a plan of union among all the Proteſtant Epiſcopal churches in the United States of America was agreed upon and ſettled; and an adequate repreſentation from the ſeveral States being preſent, they again reviſed the book of common prayer, which is now publiſhed and generally adopted by their churches. They alſo agreed upon and publiſhed 17 canons for the government of their church, the firſt of which declares that "there ſhall, in this church, be three orders in the miniſtry, viz. Biſhops, Prieſts, and Deacons."

At the ſame time they agreed upon a Conſtitution, which provides that there ſhall be a general convention of the Proteſtant Epiſcopal Church in the United States, on the ſecond Tueſday of September, of every third year from 1789—That each ſtate is entitled to a repreſentation of both the clergy and laity, or either of them, and may

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STATES

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States	Churches	Ministers. ordained	Ministers. licenſed	Members
Brought forward	396	336	173	25856
Virginia	207	157	109	20157
Kentucky	42	40	21	3105
Weſtern Territory	1	—	—	30
North Carolina	94	81	76	7742
Deceded Territory	18	15	6	889
South Carolina	68	48	28	4012
Georgia	42	33	9	3184
Total	868	710	422	64975

Of theſe there are

	Aſſoc.	Chur.	Ministers. ordained	Ministers. licenſed	Mem.
Six principle Baptiſts	1	18	26	4	1599
Open Communion Do.	1	15	13	4	1714
General Proviſion Do.	3	30	26	19	1948
Seventh Day Do.		10	13	3	887
Regular or Particular Do.	30	795	632	392	58827
Total	35	868	710	422	64675

To this account, the compiler conjectures that 1500 members, and 30 churches ought to be added—making the whole number of churches about 900, and the members about 66,000. He ſuppoſes moreover that at leaſt *three times* as many attend their meetings, as have joined their churches, which, if we ſuppoſe all who attend their meetings are in principle Baptiſts, will make the whole number of that denomination in theſe ſtates, 198,000, or a twenty-ſixth part of the inhabitants.

Some of the leading principles of the regular or particular baptiſts, are—The imputation of Adam's ſin to his poſterity—the inability of man to recover himſelf—effectual calling by ſovereign grace—juſtification by the imputed righteouſneſs of Chriſt—immerſion for baptiſm, and that on profeſſion of faith and repentance—congregational churches, and their independency, and reception into them upon evidence of ſound converſion.

We ſhall next ſpeak of the people called Quakers.* This denomination of Chriſtians aroſe about the year 1648, and were firſt collected into religious ſocieties by their highly reſpected elder, George Fox. They came to America as early as 1656. The firſt ſettlers of Pennſylvania were all of this denomination; and the number of Friends meetings in the United States, at preſent, is about 320.

Their doctrinal tenets may be ſummarily expreſſed as follows—In common with other Chriſtians, they believe in One Eternal God, and in Jeſus Chriſt the Meſſiah and Mediator of the new covenant. To Chriſt alone, in whoſe divinity they believe, they give the title of the *Word* of God, and not to the Scriptures; yet they profeſs a high eſteem for theſe ſacred writings, in ſubordination to the Spirit who indited them, and

* They received their appellation from this circumſtance —" In the year 1650, George Fox, being brought before two juſtices in Derbyſhire, one of them, ſcoffing at him, for having bidden him and thoſe about him, to *tremble* at the word of the Lord, gave to him and his followers, the name of *Quakers*; a name by which they have ſince been uſually denominated: but they themſelves adopted the appellation of *Friends*.

believe

believe that they are able, through faith, to make wiſe to ſalvation—They reverence the excellent precepts of Scripture, and believe them practicable and binding on every Chriſtian; and that in the life to come, every man will be rewarded according to his works. In order to enable mankind to put in practice theſe precepts, they believe, that every man coming into the world is endued with a meaſure of the Light, Grace or Good Spirit of Chriſt; by which he is enabled to diſtinguiſh good from evil, and correct the diſorderly paſſions and corrupt propenſities of his nature, which mere reaſon is altogether inſufficient to overcome—that this divine grace is, to thoſe who ſincerely ſeek it, an all-ſufficient and preſent help in time of need—and that by it the ſnares of the enemy are detected, his allurements avoided, and deliverance experienced, through faith in its effectual operation, and the ſoul tranſlated out of the kingdom of darkneſs into the marvellous light and kingdom of the Son of God—Thus perſuaded, they think this divine influence eſpecially neceſſary to the performance of the higheſt act of which the human mind is capable, the worſhip of God in ſpirit and in truth; and therefore conſider, as obſtructions to pure worſhip, all forms which divert the mind from the ſecret influence of this unction of the Holy One—Though true worſhip is not confined to time or place, they believe it is incumbent on churches to meet often together, but dare not depend for acceptance on a formal repetition of the words and experiences of others—They think it is their duty to wait in ſilence to have a true ſight of their condition beſtowed on them; and believe even a ſingle ſigh, ariſing from a ſenſe of their infirmities and need of divine help, to be more acceptable to God, than any performances which originate in the will of man.

They believe the renewed aſſiſtance of the light and power of Chriſt, which is not at our command, nor attainable by ſtudy, but the free gift of God, to be indiſpenſably neceſſary to all true miniſtry—Hence ariſes their teſtimony againſt preaching for hire, and conſcientious refuſal to ſupport ſuch miniſtry by tythes or other means.—As they dare not encourage any miniſtry, but ſuch as they believe to ſpring from the influence of the Holy Spirit; ſo neither dare they attempt to reſtrain this influence to perſons of any condition in life, or to the male ſex—but allow ſuch of the female ſex as appear to be qualified, to exerciſe their gifts for the general edification of the church.

They hold that as there is one Lord and one faith, ſo his baptiſm is one in nature and operation, and that nothing ſhort of it can make us living members of his myſtical body; and that baptiſm with water belonged to an inferior and decreaſing diſpenſation. With reſpect to the Lord's Supper, they believe that communication between Chriſt and his church is not maintained by that nor any other external ordinance, but only by a real participation of his divine nature, through faith; that this is the ſupper alluded to Rev. iii. 20—and that where the ſubſtance is attained, it is unneceſſary to attend to the ſhadow.

Believing that the grace of God is alone ſufficient for ſalvation, they can neither admit that it is conferred on a few only, while others are left without it; nor, thus aſſerting its univerſality, can they limit its operation to a partial cleanſing of the ſoul from ſin, even in this life—On the contrary, they believe that God doth vouchſafe to aſſiſt the obedient to ſubmit to the guidance of his pure ſpirit, through whoſe aſſiſtance they are enabled to bring forth fruits unto holineſs, and to ſtand *perfect* in their preſent rank.

As to oaths, they abide literally by Chriſt's poſitive injunction, "Swear not at all." They believe that "wars and fightings" are, in their origin and effects, utterly repugnant to the Goſpel, which ſtill breathes peace and good will to

men.* They alſo are firmly perſuaded, that if the benevolence of the Goſpel were generally prevalent in the minds of men, it would effectually prevent them from oppreſſing, much more from enſlaving † their brethren, of whatever complexion; and would even influence their treatment of the brute creation, which would no longer groan the victims of their avarice, or of their falſe ideas of pleaſure.—They profeſs that their principles, which inculcate ſubmiſſion to the laws in all caſes wherein conſcience is not violated, are a ſecurity to the ſalutary purpoſes of government.—But they hold that the civil magiſtrate has no right to interfere in matters of religion, and think perſecution, in any degree, unwarrantable.—They reject the uſe of thoſe names of the months and days, which, having been given in honour of the heroes or gods of the heathen, originated in their flattery or ſuperſtition; and the cuſtom of ſpeaking to a ſingle perſon in the plural number, as having ariſen alſo from motives of adulation. Compliments, ſuperfluity of apparel or furniture, outward ſhews of rejoicing or mourning, and obſervations of days and times, they deem incompatible with the ſimplicity and ſincerity of a Chriſtian life—and they condemn public diverſions, gaming, and other vain amuſements of the world.—They require no formal ſubſcription to any articles, either as the condition of membership, or to qualify for the ſervice of the church.

To effect the ſalutary purpoſes of diſcipline, Monthly, Quarterly, and Yearly meetings are eſtabliſhed.—A monthly meeting is compoſed of ſeveral neighbouring congregations.—Its buſineſs is to provide for the ſubſiſtence of the poor, and for the education of their offſpring—to judge of the ſincerity and fitneſs of perſons appearing to be convinced of the religious principles of the ſociety, and deſiring to be admitted to membership; to excite due attention to the diſcharge of religious and moral duties; to deal with diſorderly members—to appoint overſeers to ſee that the rules of their diſcipline are put in practice—to allow of marriages, &c.‡

A Quarterly meeting is compoſed of ſeveral Monthly meetings. At this meeting are produced written anſwers from monthly meetings, to certain queſtions reſpecting the conduct of their members and the meeting's care over them. The accounts thus received, are digeſted and ſent by repreſentatives to the yearly meeting. Appeals from the judgement of monthly meetings are brought to the quarterly meetings.

The Yearly meeting has the general ſuperintendance of the ſociety in the country in which it is eſtabliſhed.§ The buſineſs of this meeting is to give forth its advice—make ſuch regulations as appear to be requiſite, or excite to the obſervance of thoſe already made, &c. Appeals from the judgement of quarterly meetings are here finally deter-

* During the late war, ſome of their number, contrary to this article of their faith, thought it their duty to take up arms in defence of their country. This laid the foundation of a ſeceſſion from their brethren, and they now form a ſeparate congregation in Philadelphia, by the name of the "Reſiſting or fighting Quakers."

† In the preſent war of liberality and humanity, againſt avarice and cruelty, in defence of the Blacks, the Quakers have had the ſignal honour of having firſt ſet the illuſtrious example.

‡ Their mode of marrying is as follows—Thoſe who intend to marry, appear together, and propoſe their intention to the monthly meeting, and if not attended by their parents or guardians, produce a written certificate of their conſent, ſigned in the preſence of witneſſes. The meeting then appoints a committee to inquire whether they are clear of other engagements reſpecting marriage; and if at a ſubſequent meeting, to which the parties alſo come and declare the continuance of their intention, no objections are reported, they have the meeting's conſent to ſolemnize their intended marriage. This is done in a public meeting for worſhip, towards the cloſe of which the parties ſtand up and ſolemnly take each other for huſband and wife. A certificate of the proceedings is then publicly read, and ſigned by the parties, and afterwards by the relations and others as witneſſes, which cloſes the ſolemnity.

§ The Quakers have, in all, *ſeven* yearly meetings. One in London, to which come repreſentatives from Ireland. The other ſix are in the United States. 1. New England, 2. New York, 3. New Jerſey, and Pennſylvania, 4. Maryland, 5. Virginia, 6. The Carolinas and Georgia.

mined;

mined; and a brotherly correſpondence, by epiſtles, is maintained with other yearly meetings.

As they believe women may be rightly called to the work of the miniſtry, they alſo think they may ſhare in their Chriſtian diſcipline. Accordingly *they* have monthly, quarterly, and yearly meetings of their own ſex; held at the ſame time, and in the ſame place with thoſe of the men; but ſeparately, and without the power of making rules.

Their elders and miniſters have meetings peculiar to themſelves. Theſe meetings, called Meetings of miniſters and elders, are generally held in the compaſs of each monthly, quarterly, and yearly meeting—for the purpoſes of exciting each other to the diſcharge of their ſeveral duties—of extending advice to thoſe who may appear weak, &c. They alſo, in the intervals of the yearly meetings, give certificates to thoſe miniſters who travel abroad in the work of the miniſtry.

The yearly meeting, held in London, 1675, appointed a meeting to be held in that city, for the purpoſe of adviſing or aſſiſting in caſes of ſuffering for conſcience ſake, called a Meeting for ſufferings, which is yet continued. It is compoſed of Friends under the name of correſpondents, choſen by the ſeveral quarterly meetings, who reſide in and near the city. This meeting is entruſted with the care of printing and diſtributing books, and with the management of its ſtock, and conſidered as a ſtanding committee of the yearly meeting.—In none of their meetings have they a Preſident, as they believe Divine Wiſdom alone ought to preſide; nor has any member a right to claim pre-eminence over the reſt.

The METHODIST denomination of Chriſtians aroſe in England in 1739; and made their firſt appearance in America about 24 years ſince. Their general ſtyle is, "The United Societies of the Methodiſt Epiſcopal Church." They profeſs themſelves to be "a company of men, having the form and ſeeking the power of godlineſs, united in order to pray together, to receive the word of exhortation, and to watch over one another in love, that they may help each other to work out their ſalvation."—Each ſociety is divided into claſſes of 12 perſons; one of whom is ſtiled *the Leader*, whoſe buſineſs it is to ſee each perſon in his claſs once a week, in order to inquire how their ſouls proſper, to adviſe, reprove, comfort, or exhort as occaſion may require; and to receive contributions for the relief of the Church and Poor. In order to admiſſion into their ſocieties they require only one condition, viz. "A deſire to flee from the wrath to come, i. e. a deſire to be ſaved from their ſins." It is expected of all who continue in their ſocieties, that they ſhould evidence their deſire of ſalvation, by doing no harm, by avoiding all manner of evil, by doing all manner of good, as they have ability and opportunity, eſpecially to the houſehold of faith; employing them preferably to others, buying of one another (unleſs they can be ſerved better elſewhere) and helping each other in buſineſs—And alſo by attending upon all the ordinances of God; ſuch as public worſhip, the ſupper of the Lord, family and private prayer, ſearching the ſcriptures, and faſting or abſtinence. The late celebrated Mr. John Weſley is conſidered as the father of this claſs of Methodiſts, who, as they deny ſome of the leading Calviniſtic doctrines, and hold ſome of the peculiar tenets of Arminius, may be called *Arminian Methodiſts*.—The famous Mr. Whitefield was the leader of the *Calviniſtic Methodiſts*, who are numerous in England, and a few are in different parts of the United States, who are patronized and ſupplied with miniſters, by the late Lady Huntingdon.

In 1788, the number of *Weſleian* Methodiſts in the United States ſtood in the following manner:

Georgia	- -	2011	Delaware Pennſylvania	- -	1998
South Carolina	- -	3366			
North Carolina	- -	6779	New Jerſey	- -	1751
Virginia	- -	14356	New York	- -	2004
Maryland	- -	11017			
				Total	43265

Since this eſtimate of their numbers was taken, ſome few ſcattering ſocieties have been collected in different parts of the New England States, and their numbers increaſed in other parts; ſo that in 1790, the whole connection amounted to 57,621. To ſuperintend the methodiſt connection in America, they had, in 1788, two Biſhops, 30 Elders, and 50 Deacons.

In Great Britain and Ireland, the whole number of perſons in full connection with the Methodiſt Epiſcopal church, amounted, in 1790, to 71,568.

The whole number of ROMAN CATHOLICS in the United States is eſtimated at about 50,000; one half of which are in the State of Maryland. Their peculiar and leading doctrines and tenets are too generally known to need a recital here. They have a Biſhop, who reſides in Baltimore, and many of their congregations are large and reſpectable.

The German inhabitants in theſe ſtates, who principally belong to Pennſylvania and New York, are divided into a variety of ſects; the principal of which are, Lutherans, Calviniſts or Preſbyterians, Moravians, Tunkers, and Mennoniſts. Of theſe the German Lutherans are the moſt numerous. Of this denomination, and the German Preſbyterians or Calviniſts, who are next to them in numbers, there are upwards of 60 miniſters in Pennſylvania—and the former have 12, and the latter 6 churches in the ſtate of New York. Many of their churches are large and ſplendid, and in ſome inſtances furniſhed with organs. Theſe two denominations live together in the greateſt harmony, often preaching in each other's churches, and ſometimes uniting in the erection of a church, in which they alternately worſhip.

The MORAVIANS are a reſpectable body of Chriſtians in theſe States. Of this denomination, there were, in 1788, about 1300 ſouls in Pennſylvania; viz. at Bethlehem, between 5 and 600, which number has ſince increaſed—at Nazareth, 450—at Litiz, upwards of 300. Their other ſettlements, in the United States, are at Hope, in New Jerſey, about 100 ſouls; at Wachovia, on Yadkin river, North Carolina, containing 6 churches. Beſides theſe regular ſettlements, formed by ſuch only as are members of the brethren's church, and live together in good order and harmony, there are in different parts of Pennſylvania, Maryland, and New Jerſey, and in the cities of Newport, (Rhode Iſland) New York, Philadelphia, Lancaſter, York-town, &c. congregations of the brethren, who have their own church and miniſter, and hold the ſame principles, and doctrinal tenets, and church rites and ceremonies as the former, though their local ſituation does not admit of ſuch particular regulations, as are peculiar to the regular ſettlements.

They call themſelves, "The *United Brethren of the Proteſtant Epiſcopal Church.*" They are called Moravians, becauſe the firſt ſettlers in the Engliſh dominions were chiefly emigrants from Moravia. Theſe were the remnant and genuine deſcendents of the church of the antient United Brethren, eſtabliſhed in Bohemia and Moravia, as early as the year 1456. About the middle of the laſt century, they left their native country to avoid perſecution, and to enjoy liberty of conſcience, and the true exerciſe of the religion of their forefathers. They were received in Saxony, and other Proteſtant dominions, and were encouraged to ſettle among them, and were joined by many

many ſerious people of other dominions. They adhere to the Auguſtin Confeſſion of Faith, which was drawn up by Proteſtant divines at the time of the reformation in Germany, in the year 1530, and preſented at the diet of the empire at Auſburg; and which, at that time, contained the doctrinal ſyſtem of all the eſtabliſhed Proteſtant churches. They retain the diſcipline of their ancient church, and make uſe of Epiſcopal ordination, which has been handed down to them in a direct line of ſucceſſion for more than three hundred years.*

They profeſs to live in ſtrict obedience to the ordinances of Chriſt, ſuch as the obſervation of the Sabbath, Infant Baptiſm, and the Lord's Supper; and in addition to theſe, they practiſe the foot waſhing, the kiſs of love, and the uſe of the lot.

They were introduced into America by Count Zinzendorf, and ſettled at Bethlehem, which is their principal ſettlement in America, as early as 1741. Regularity, induſtry, ingenuity, and œconomy, are characteriſtics of theſe people.

The TUNKERS are ſo called in deriſion, from the word *tunken, to put a morcel in ſauce.* The Engliſh word that conveys the proper meaning of Tunkers is *Sops* or *Dippers.* They are alſo called Tumblers, from the manner in which they perform baptiſm, which is by putting the perſon, while kneeling, head firſt under water, ſo as to reſemble the motion of the body in the action of tumbling. The Germans ſound the letters *t* and *b* like *d* and *p*; hence the words Tunkers and Tumblers, have been corruptly written Dunkers and Dumplers.

The firſt appearing of theſe people in America was in the fall of the year 1719, when about twenty families landed in Philadelphia, and diſperſed themſelves in various parts of Pennſylvania. They are what are called General Baptiſts, and hold to general redemption and general ſalvation. They uſe great plainneſs of dreſs and language, and will neither ſwear, nor fight, nor go to law, nor take intereſt for the money they lend. They commonly wear their beards—keep the firſt day Sabbath, except one congregation—have the Lord's Supper with its ancient attendants of Love-feaſts, with waſhing of feet, kiſs of charity, and right hand of fellowſhip. They anoint the ſick with oil for their recovery, and uſe the trine immerſion, with laying on of hands and prayer, even while the perſon baptiſed is in the water. Their church government and diſcipline are the ſame with thoſe of the Engliſh Baptiſts, except that every brother is allowed to ſpeak in the congregation; and their beſt ſpeaker is uſually ordained to be their miniſter. They have deacons, deaconeſſes (from among their ancient widows) and exhorters, who are all licenſed to uſe their gifts ſtatedly. On the whole, notwithſtanding their peculiarities, they appear to be humble, well-meaning Chriſtians, and have acquired the character of the *harmleſs* Tunkers.

Their principal ſettlement is at Ephrata, ſometimes called Tunkers-town, in Lancaſter county, ſixty miles weſtward of Philadelphia. It conſiſts of about forty buildings, of which three are places of worſhip: one is called Sharon, and adjoins the ſiſter's apartment as a chapel; another, belonging to the brothers' apartment, is called Bethany. To theſe the brethren and ſiſters reſort, ſeparately, to worſhip morning and evening, and ſometimes in the night. The third is a common church, called Zion, where all in the ſettlement meet once a week for public worſhip. The brethren have

* See David Crantz' Hiſt. of 'The ancient and modern United Brethren's Church, tranſlated from the German, by the Rev. Benjamin La Trobe.' London, 1780. Thoſe who wiſh to obtain a thorough and impartial knowledge of their religious ſentiments and cuſtoms, may ſee them excellently ſummed up in a plain, but nervous ſtile, in 'An expoſition of Chriſtian Doctrine, as taught in the Proteſtant church of the United Brethren,' written in German, by A. G. Spangenberg, and tranſlated and publiſhed in Engliſh in 1784.

adopted the White Friars' dreſs, with ſome alterations; the ſiſters that of the nuns; and both like them have taken the vow of celibacy. All, however, do not keep the vow. When they marry, they leave their cells and go among the married people. They ſubſiſt by cultivating their lands, by attending a printing office, a griſt mill, a paper mill, an oil mill, &c. and the ſiſters by ſpinning, weaving, ſewing, &c. They at firſt ſlept on board couches, but now on beds, and have otherwiſe abated much of their former ſeverity. This congregation keep the ſeventh day Sabbath. Their ſinging is charming, owing to the pleaſantneſs of their voices, the variety of parts, and the devout manner of performance. Beſides this congregation at Ephrata, there were, in 1770, fourteen others in various other parts of Pennſylvania, and ſome in Maryland. The whole, excluſive of thoſe in Maryland, amounted to upwards of 2000 ſouls.

The MENNONISTS derive their name from Menno Simon, a native of Witmars in Germany, a man of learning, born in the year 1505, in the time of the reformation by Luther and Calvin. He was a famous Roman Catholic preacher, till about the year 1531, when he became a Baptiſt. Some of his followers came into Pennſylvania from New York and ſettled at German-town, as early as 1692. This is at preſent their principal congregation, and the mother of the reſt. Their whole number, in 1770, in Pennſylvania, was upwards of 4000, divided into thirteen churches, and forty-two congregations, under the care of fifteen ordained miniſters, and fifty-three licenſed preachers.

The Mennoniſts do not, like the Tunkers, hold the doctrine of general ſalvation; yet like them, they will neither ſwear nor fight, nor bear any civil office, nor go to law, nor take intereſt for the money they lend, though many break this laſt rule. Some of them wear their beards; waſh each others feet, &c. and all uſe plainneſs of ſpeech and dreſs. Some have been expelled their ſociety for wearing buckles in their ſhoes, and having pocket holes in their coats. Their church government is democratical. They call themſelves the Harmleſs Chriſtians, Revengeleſs Chriſtians, and Weaponleſs Chriſtians. They are Baptiſts rather in name than in fact; for they do not uſe immerſion. Their common mode of baptiſm is this: the perſon to be baptized kneels; the miniſter holds his hands over him, into which the deacon pours water, which runs through upon the head of the perſon kneeling. After this, follow impoſition of hands and prayer.

The denomination ſtiled UNIVERSALISTS, though their ſchemes are very various, may properly enough be divided into two claſſes, viz. Thoſe who embrace the ſcheme of Dr. Chauncey, exhibited in his book entitled "The Salvation of all Men;" and the diſciples of Mr. Wincheſter and Mr. John Murray.

A judicious ſummary of Dr. Chauncey's ſentiments has been given,* as follows:

"That the ſcheme of revelation has the happineſs of all mankind lying at bottom, as its great and ultimate end; that it gradually tends to this end; and will not fail of its accompliſhment, when fully completed. Some, in conſequence of its operation, as conducted by the Son of God, will be diſpoſed and enabled, in this preſent ſtate, to make ſuch improvements in virtue, the only rational preparative for happineſs, as that they ſhall enter upon the enjoyment of it in the next ſtate. Others, who have proved incurable under the means which have been uſed with them in this ſtate, inſtead of being happy in the next, will be awfully miſerable; not to continue ſo finally, but that they may be convinced of their folly, and recovered to a virtuous frame of mind:

* In H. Adams's "View of Religions," article *Univerſaliſts*, where the reader may find alſo a ſummary of the arguments for and againſt his ſcheme.

and

and this will be the effect of the future torments upon many; the conſequence whereof will be their ſalvation, they being thus fitted for it. And there may be yet other ſtates, before the ſcheme of God may be perfected, and mankind univerſally cured of their moral diſorders, and in this way qualified for, and finally inſtated in, eternal happineſs. But however many ſtates ſome of the individuals of the human ſpecies may paſs through, and of however long continuance they may be, the whole is intended to ſubſerve the grand deſign of *univerſal happineſs*, and will finally terminate in it; inſomuch, that the *Son of God* and *Saviour of men* will not deliver up his truſt into the hands of the *Father*, who committed it to him, till he has diſcharged his obligations in virtue of it; having finally fixed all men in heaven, when God will be *All in All*.

The number of this denomination is not known. The open advocates of this ſcheme are few; though the number is larger, who embrace the doctrine of the ſalvation of all men, upon principles ſimilar, but variouſly differing from thoſe on which the abovementioned ſcheme is grounded.

The latter claſs of Univerſaliſts have a new ſcheme, differing eſſentially from that of the former, which they reject as inconſiſtent and abſurd: and they cannot conceive how they who embrace it, can, "with any degree of propriety, be called Univerſaliſts, on Apoſtolic principles, as it does not appear that they have any idea of being ſaved by, or *in* the Lord, with an everlaſting, or with any ſalvation."—Hence they call them "Phariſaical Univerſaliſts, who are *willing to juſtify themſelves*." *

It is difficult to ſay what is the preſent ſcheme of the denomination of which we are now ſpeaking; for they differ not only from all other Univerſaliſts, and from each other, but even from themſelves at different periods. The reader, however, may form an idea of ſome of their tenets from what follows, collected from the letter referred to in the note. This letter, written lately, by the head of the denomination, and profeſſing to rectify miſtakes reſpecting doctrines propagated under the Chriſtian name—to give the character of a *Conſiſtent Univerſaliſt*—and to acquaint the world with their *real* ſentiments, we have reaſon to conclude, gives as true an account of their ſcheme as can be obtained.

From this letter it appears, that they believe "that Religion of *ſome* ſort or *other*, is a public benefit;" and that every perſon is at liberty, and is bound, to ſupport what he conceives to be the *true* Religion—That public worſhip on *every* firſt day of the week, is an incumbent duty on *all* real lovers of divine truth—that prayer, as it indicates truſt *in*, and dependence *on* God, is part of his worſhip—They believe that the *Deceiver*, who beguiled Eve, and not our *firſt parents* themſelves, did the deed which brought *ruin* and death on all the human race—That there are two claſſes of fallen ſinners—the *Angels* who kept not their firſt eſtate, and the *human nature*, deceived by the former, and *apparently* deſtroyed conſequent thereon—that a *juſt* God, in the law given by Moſes, has denounced death and the curſe on *every one who continueth not in all things, written in the book of the law to do them*—but that the *ſame* God was manifeſted in the fleſh as the head of every man, *made under the law, to redeem them that are under the law*, being *made a curſe for them*—that he *taſted death for every man*, being a Saviour, not of a *few* only, but *of all men*—and that the declaration of this is *the Goſpel*.—They believe that when God denounces on the human race, woes, wrath, tribulation, death, damnation, &c. in the Scriptures, he ſpeaks in his legiſlative capacity, as the juſt God who will *by no means clear the guilty*—that when he ſpeaks of mercy, grace, peace, or life as the gift of God, and ſalvation in whole or in part, he ſpeaks in the character of the

* See Mr. Murray's "Letter to a Friend," page 40, 41. printed in Boſton, 1791.

juſt

juſt God and Saviour—that the former is the language of the law; the latter is the language of the Goſpel.

Confeſſion of ſins—Repentance, and ſupplications for mercy and forgiveneſs, make no part of their creed or worſhip.

They believe that the Prince of Peace came to ſave the *human nature* from the power and dominion of the Devil, and his works—that he came to deſtroy the latter, that he might ſave the former—That "Sin is the work of the Devil—that he is the *Worker* and *Doer* of whatever gives offence"—That Jeſus, as the Saviour of the world, ſhall ſeparate from his kingdom, both the *evil Worker* and his evil works; the *evil Worker*, in the character of *goats*—the *evil works* in the character of *tares*.—They ſuppoſe that what is wicked in mankind, is repreſented by the *evil ſeed* ſown by the *evil One* in *human nature*, and that "when the Sower of the evil ſeed, and all the evil ſeed ſown, ſhall be ſeparated from the ſeed which God ſowed, then the ſeed which is properly God's ſeed, will be like him who ſowed it, *pure* and *holy*."

They conſider all ordinances as *merely ſhadows*; yet they celebrate the Lord's Supper, by eating and drinking wine—and ſome of them ſuppoſe that *every* time they eat bread and drink wine, they comply with our Lord's injunction, "Do this in remembrance of me."—Various other opinions prevail among them reſpecting this ordinance, and that of baptiſm. They "admit of but *one* baptiſm, the baptizer Jeſus Chriſt; the elements made uſe of, the Holy Ghoſt and fire"—yet they are willing, in order to avoid contention, "to become all things to all men," and to baptize infants by ſprinkling, or adults by immerſion—or to omit theſe ſigns altogether, according as the opinions of parents may vary upon this ſubject—Some think it proper to *dedicate* their children to the Lord, by putting them into the arms of the miniſter, to be by him preſented to Chriſt, to be baptized with his baptiſm, in the name of the Trinity, the miniſter at the ſame time to bleſs them in the words in which God commanded Aaron and his ſons to bleſs the children of Iſrael—"The Lord bleſs thee, &c."—It appears, in ſhort, that their notions reſpecting theſe ordinances are various, vague, and unſettled.

They believe in a judgement *paſt* and a judgement to come—that the *paſt* judgement is either that in which the world was judged in the ſecond Adam, according to the word of the Saviour, "*Now is the judgement of this world—now is the Prince of this world caſt out* and judgement executed on *them* and on the whole *human nature*, according to the righteous judgement of God—or that which every man is to exerciſe upon himſelf, according to the words "*judge yourſelves and ye ſhall not be judged*"—"The judgement *to come* is that in which all who have not judged themſelves—all unbelievers of the human race, and all the fallen angels, ſhall be judged by the Saviour—but theſe two characters, viz. *unbelievers of the human race*, and the *fallen angels*, ſhall be placed, the *former* on the *right*, the *latter* on the *left* hand of their Judge; the one under the denomination of *ſheep*, for whoſe ſalvation the Saviour laid down his life—the other under the denomination of *goats*, who are the accurſed, whoſe nature he paſſed by—"The *human nature*" (i. e. the *ſheep* or unbelievers of the human race) "as the offſpring of the everlaſting Father, and the *ranſomed of the Lord*—ſhall be brought, by divine power, into the *kingdom prepared for them, before the foundation of the world*—the other *nature*, (i. e. the goats, or fallen angels) "will be ſent into the *fire prepared for them*."* From which

* The reader will doubtleſs notice that the plural pronoun *them*, is ſeveral times uſed to expreſs the ſingular noun *human nature, and Prince of this world*, as the *human nature*, &c. ſhall be brought into the kingdom prepared for *them*; the other *nature* will be ſent into the fire prepared for *them*—the *Prince of this world* ſhall be

which it appears, that it is their opinion, that *unbelievers of the human race*, or *ſheep*, and the *fallen angels*, or *goats*, will be the only claſſes of creatures concerned in the awards of the laſt judgement—and that the righteous, or believers in Chriſt, will not then be judged, having previouſly judged themſelves*—" But the reſt of mankind," ſay they, " will be the ſubjects of this judgement, when our Saviour *ſhall be revealed from heaven in flaming fire, taking vengeance on them that know not God, and obey not the goſpel; and they ſhall then be puniſhed with everlaſting deſtruction from the preſence of the Lord and the glory of his power.*" Their inference from, and expoſition of this paſſage, are peculiar, and will ſerve to give the reader an idea of their manner of explaining other parallel paſſages of Scripture. From this awful revelation of the Saviour, to take vengeance on them that know not God, and obey not the goſpel, they infer this conſequence, they ſhall then be made to know God, and obey the goſpel."—The everlaſting deſtruction, from the preſence of the Lord and the glory of his power, with which they *ſhall* be puniſhed, they ſuppoſe is ſuffered by unbelievers, in conſequence of the *revelation* of the everlaſting deſtruction, *previous* to this awful period—and that they will ſuffer no puniſhment *after* it—for " it is not ſaid," they ſay, " that they ſhall be *everlaſtingly* puniſhed with deſtruction." They explain their idea of *everlaſting puniſhment* and *ſuffering the* pain of eternal fire, thus, " Were it *poſſible* to find a culinary fire that never would be extinguiſhed, but in the ſtricteſt ſenſe of the word, was *everlaſting* or *eternal*—ſhould any member of the body paſs through that burning flame, though but a *moment of time* had been thus ſpent in paſſing through; yet even in that *moment*, it would ſuffer the pain of *eternal fire*."—But whether they believe it *poſſible* that there ſhould be ſuch a fire, or that unbelievers ſhall be doomed to ſuffer the *puniſhment of eternal fire* by thus paſſing through it, they do not declare.

They do not ſuppoſe that " all mankind will be on a level in the article of death, but that they who die in unbelief, will *lie down in ſorrow*, and riſe to the reſurrection of damnation, or condemnation; and when the books ſhall be opened, and the dead, both ſmall and great, ſhall be judged out of the things written in the books—every mouth ſhall be ſtopped, and all the world become guilty before God; and while conſcious of guilt, but *ignorant* of a Saviour—they ſhall call on the rocks and mountains to fall on them to hide them from the wrath of the Lamb—But that in *this judgement* the *judge* is the *Saviour*—they will be judged by *their own head*;" and as the head of every man is Chriſt—all of courſe muſt be acquitted and ſaved.

Although they believe that the Devil is the *doer* or *worker* of every thing that gives offence; yet they aſſert that " *all men* at *all times* are ſinners, and come ſhort of the glory of God"—but they believe that what Chriſt ſuffered, " was conſidered by the *Great Lawgiver*, as done and ſuffered by every man in his own perſon; and that every man is as much intereſted in what Chriſt, the ſecond Adam did, as they were in what the firſt Adam did"—thus believing they conſider God as juſt in being their Saviour, as he would have been in their eternal damnation.

The *Conſiſtent Univerſaliſt*, " does not conſider himſelf under the law any more than a woman conſiders herſelf under the direction or dominion of a huſband that is dead and buried—nor is he afraid of death, being aſſured that Jeſus hath aboliſhed death, and left nothing of it but the *ſhadow*."

be caſt out, and judgement be executed on *them*. This is a phraſeology peculiar to this denomination, for the grammatical propriety of which, the compiler does not hold himſelf reſponſible.

* In the following paſſage, the contrary ſeems to be aſſerted. Speaking of the laſt judgement it is ſaid, " Here, inſtead of head and members being judged together, by the *head, Chriſt*, the *divine nature*, the members are conſidered in their diſtinct characters, as *good* and evil, or *believer* and unbeliever, as *children of light*, and children of darkneſs—and *judged* by their own head. Letter, p. 33.

The Univerſaliſts of this denomination, in common with other Chriſtians, profeſs themſelves to be the advocates of *piety*, *religion*, and *morality*.—They aſſert the duty of doing right as men—as members of civil ſociety—and as Chriſtians. "As *mere* men" they hold, that "they muſt *follow nature*, or they will ſink beneath the level of the beaſts of the field"—and yet they aſſert that "*all the righteouſneſs* found in the *beſt* of *mere human nature* is but as a *filthy rag*"—That as members of civil ſociety they muſt ſubmit to the laws, or if thought too ſevere, they may avoid them by a removal from the ſtate."—That as Chriſtians they muſt be under the direction of Chriſt, and *do whatſoever he commands them*; and theſe are his commandments, "*that we believe in him, and love one another.*"

There are but a few of this denomination of Univerſaliſts in the United States—Of theſe few, ſome are in Pennſylvania—ſome in different parts of New York, Connecticut, Rhode Iſland, and New Hampſhire; but the body of them are in Boſton, and Glouceſter, in Maſſachuſetts. They have ſeveral conſtituted churches, which are governed by an eccleſiaſtical conſtitution, formed in 1789, by a ſmall convention of their miniſters at Philadelphia.

There is a ſmall and ſingular ſect of Chriſtians, called SHAKERS, which have ſprung up among us as lately as 1774; when a few of this ſect came from England to New York, and there being joined by a few others, they ſettled at Niſqueunia, above Albany, which is their principal ſettlement: a few others are ſcattered in different parts of the country.

The head of this party, while ſhe lived,* was Anna Leeſe, ſtyled the Elect Lady. Her followers aſſerted, that ſhe was the woman ſpoken of in the twelfth chapter of the Revelation, and that ſhe ſpoke ſeventy-two tongues: and although theſe tongues were unintelligible to the living, ſhe converſed with the dead who underſtood her language. They alledged alſo that ſhe was the mother of all the *Elect*; that ſhe travailed for the whole world—that no bleſſing could deſcend to any perſon but only by and through her, and that in the way of her being poſſeſſed of their ſins, by their confeſſing and repenting of them, one by one, according to her direction.

Their leading doctrinal tenets, as given by one of their own denomination, are, "That the firſt reſurrection is already come, and now is the time to judge themſelves. That they have power to heal the ſick, to raiſe the dead, and caſt out devils. That they have a correſpondence with angels, the ſpirits of the ſaints and their departed friends. That they ſpeak with divers kind of tongues in their public aſſemblies. That it is lawful to practiſe *vocal muſic* with *dancing* in the Chriſtian churches, if it be practiſed in praiſing the Lord. That their church is come out of the order of natural generation, to be as Chriſt was; and that thoſe who have wives are as though they had none. That by theſe means heaven begins upon earth, and they thereby loſe their earthly and ſenſual relation to Adam the firſt, and come to be tranſparent in their ideas, in the bright and heavenly viſions of God. That ſome of their people are of the number of the 144,000, who were redeemed from the earth, and were not defiled with women. That the word everlaſting, when applied to the puniſhment of the wicked, means only a limited period, except in the caſe of thoſe who fall from *their* church; and that for ſuch there is no forgiveneſs, neither in this world nor that which is to come. That it is unlawful to ſwear, game, or uſe compliments—and that water baptiſm and the Lord's Supper are aboliſhed. That Adam's ſin is not imputed to his poſterity—and that the doctrines of election and reprobation are to be rejected."

* Notwithſtanding her predictions and aſſertions to the contrary, ſhe died in 1784; and was ſucceeded by one James Whitaker, who alſo died in 1787. Joſeph Meacham, who has attained the reputation of a prophet among them, is at preſent their Leader.

The

The diſcipline of this denomination is founded on the ſuppoſed perfection of their leaders. The Mother, or the Elect Lady, it is ſaid, obeys God through Chriſt. *European* elders obey her. *American* labourers, and common people obey them; while confeſſion is made of every ſecret thing, from the oldeſt to the youngeſt. The people are made to believe that they are ſeen through and through in the goſpel glaſs of perfection, by their teachers, who behold the ſtate of the dead, and innumerable worlds of ſpirits good and bad.

Theſe people are generally inſtructed to be very induſtrious, and to bring in according to their ability, to keep up the meeting. They vary in their exerciſes. Their heavy dancing, as it is called, is performed by a perpetual ſpringing from the houſe floor, about four inches up and down, both in the men's and women's apartment, moving about with extraordinary tranſport, ſinging ſometimes one at a time, ſometimes more, making a perfect charm.

This elevation affects the nerves, ſo that they have intervals of ſhuddering, as if they were in a ſtrong fit of the ague. They ſometimes clap hands and leap ſo as to ſtrike the joiſts above their heads. They throw off their outſide garments in theſe exerciſes, and ſpend their ſtrength very cheerfully this way. Their chief ſpeaker often calls for attention; when they all ſtop and hear ſome harangue, and then fall to dancing again. They aſſert that their dancing is the token of the great joy and happineſs of the new *Jeruſalem ſtate*, and denotes the victory over ſin. One of the poſtures, which increaſes among them, is turning round very ſwift for an hour or two. This, they ſay, is to ſhow the great power of God.

They ſometimes fall on their knees and make a ſound like the roaring of many waters, in groans and cries to God, as they ſay, for the wicked world who perſecute them.*

The JEWS are not numerous in the United States. They have ſynagogues at Savannah, Charleſton, (South Carolina) Philadelphia, New York, and Newport. Beſides thoſe who reſide at theſe places, there are others ſcattered in different towns in the United States.

The Jews in Charleſton, among other peculiarities in burying their dead, have theſe: After the funeral dirge is ſung, and juſt before the corpſe is depoſited in the grave, the coffin is opened, and a ſmall bag of earth, taken from the grave, is carefully put under the head of the deceaſed; then ſome powder, ſaid to be earth brought from Jeruſalem, and carefully kept for this purpoſe, is taken and put upon the eyes of the corpſe, in token of their remembrance of the holy land, and of their expectations of returning thither in God's appointed time. Whether this cuſtom is univerſal among the Jews, is not known.†

They generally expect a glorious return to the Holy Land, when they ſhall be exalted above all the nations of the earth. And they flatter themſelves that the period of their return will ſpeedily arrive, though they do not venture to fix the preciſe time.

The whole number of perſons who profeſs the Jewiſh religion, in all parts of the world, is ſuppoſed to be about three millions, who, as their phraſe is, are witneſſes of the unity of *God* in all the nations in the world.

Beſides the religious ſects enumerated, there are a few of the German inhabitants in Pennſylvania, who are ſtyled SWINSEILDIANS, and, in Maryland, a ſmall number

* H. Adams's "View of Religions." Article *Shakers*.

† For the articles of their faith, &c. ſee H. Adams's "View of Religions," Article *Jews*, page 290.

called NICOLITES or NEW QUAKERS; but with the diſtinguiſhing ſentiments of theſe ſects I am not acquainted.

HISTORY.] In addition to what we have already ſaid of the diſcovery and ſettlement of North America, we ſhall here give a brief hiſtory of the late war with Great Britain, with a ſketch of the events which preceded and prepared the way for the revolution. This general view of the hiſtory of the United States will ſerve as a ſuitable introduction to the particular hiſtories of the ſeveral States, which will be given in their proper places.

America was originally peopled by uncivilized nations, who lived moſtly by hunting and fiſhing. The Europeans, who firſt viſited theſe ſhores, treating the natives as wild beaſts of the foreſt, which have no property in the woods where they roam, planted the ſtandard of their reſpective maſters, where they firſt landed, and in their names claimed the country by *right of diſcovery*.* Prior to any ſettlement in North America, numerous titles of this kind were acquired by the Engliſh, French, Spaniſh, and Dutch navigators, who came hither for the purpoſes of fiſhing and trading with the natives. Slight as ſuch titles were, they were afterwards the cauſes of contention between the European nations. The ſubjects of different princes often laid claim to the ſame tract of country, becauſe both had diſcovered the ſame river or promontory; or becauſe the extent of their reſpective claims was undetermined.

While the ſettlements in this vaſt uncultivated country were inconſiderable and ſcattered, and the trade of it confined to the bartering of a few trinkets for furs, a trade carried on by a few adventurers, the interfering of claims produced no important controverſy among the ſettlers or the nations of Europe. But in proportion to the progreſs of population, and the growth of the American trade, the jealouſies of the nations, which had made early diſcoveries and ſettlements on this coaſt, were alarmed; ancient claims were revived; and each power took meaſures to extend and ſecure its own poſſeſſions at the expence of a rival.

By the treaty of Utrecht in 1713, the Engliſh claimed a right of cutting logwood in the Bay of Campeachy, in South America. In the exerciſe of this right, the Engliſh merchants had frequent opportunities of carrying on a contraband trade with the Spaniſh ſettlements on the continent. To remedy this evil, the Spaniards reſolved to annihilate a claim, which, though often acknowledged, had never been clearly aſcertained. To effect this deſign they captured the Engliſh veſſels, which they found along the Spaniſh Main, and many of the Britiſh ſubjects were doomed to work in the mines of Potoſi.

Repeated ſeverities of this kind at length (1739) produced a war between England and Spain. Porto Bello was taken from the Spaniards by Admiral Vernon. Commodore Anſon, with a ſquadron of ſhips, ſailed to the South Seas, diſtreſſed the Spaniſh ſettlements on the weſtern ſhore of America, and took a galleon laden with immenſe riches. But in 1741, a formidable armament, deſtined to attack Carthagena, under the command of Lord Cathcart, returned unſucceſsful, with the loſs of upwards of twelve thouſand Britiſh ſoldiers and ſeamen; and the defeat of the expedition raiſed a clamour againſt the miniſter, Sir Robert Walpole, which produced a change in the adminiſtration. This change removed the ſcene of war to Europe, ſo that America was not immediately affected by the ſubſequent tranſactions, except that

* As well may the New Zealanders, who have not yet diſcovered Europe, fit out a ſhip, land on the coaſt of England or France, and, finding no inhabitants but poor fiſhermen and peaſants, claim the whole country by *right of diſcovery*.

Louiſburgh,

Louiſburgh, the principal fortreſs of Cape Breton, was taken from the French by General Pepperell, aſſiſted by Commodore Warren and a body of New England troops.*

This war was ended in 1748, by the treaty of peace ſigned at Aix la Chapelle, by which reſtitution was made, on both ſides, of all places during the war.

Peace however was of ſhort duration. The French poſſeſſed Canada, and had made conſiderable ſettlements in Florida, claiming the country on both ſides of the Miſſiſſippi, by right of diſcovery. To ſecure and extend their claims, they eſtabliſhed a line of forts from Canada to Florida. They had ſecured the important paſs at Niagara, and erected a fort at the junction of the Allegany and Monongahela rivers, called Fort Du Queſne. They took pains to ſecure the friendſhip and aſſiſtance of the natives; encroachments were made upon the Engliſh poſſeſſions, and mutual injuries ſucceeded. The diſputes among the ſettlers in America, and the meaſures taken by the French to command all the trade of the St. Lawrence river on the north, and of the Miſſiſſippi on the ſouth, excited a jealouſy in the Engliſh nation, which ſoon broke forth in open war.

The next year three other expeditions were undertaken in America againſt the French. One was conducted by General Monckton, who had orders to drive the French from their encroachments on the province of Nova Scotia. This expedition was attended with ſucceſs. General Johnſon was ordered with a body of troops to take poſſeſſion of Crown Point, but he did not ſucceed. General Shirley commanded an expedition againſt the fort at Niagara, but loſt the ſeaſon by delay.

In 1755, General Braddock marched againſt fort Du Queſne, but in penetrating through the wilderneſs, he incautiouſly fell into an ambuſcade, and ſuffered a total defeat. General Braddock was killed, but the enemy not purſuing the vanquiſhed acroſs the river, being eager in plundering the baggage of the dead, a part of his troops were ſaved by flight under the conduct of General Waſhington, at that time a colonel, who then began to exhibit proofs of thoſe military talents, by which he afterwards conducted the armies of America to victory, and his country to independence.

The ill ſucceſs of theſe expeditions left the Engliſh ſettlements in America expoſed to the depredations of both the French and Indians. But the war now raged in Europe and the Eaſt Indies, and engaged the attention of both nations in thoſe quarters.

It was not until the campaign in 1758, that affairs aſſumed a more favourable aſpect in America. But upon a change of adminiſtration, Mr. Pitt was appointed prime miniſter, and the operations of war became more vigorous and ſucceſsful. General Amherſt was ſent to take poſſeſſion of Cape Breton; and after a warm ſiege, the garriſon of Louiſburgh ſurrendered by capitulation. General Forbes was ſucceſsful in taking poſſeſſion of Fort Du Queſne, which the French thought fit to abandon. But General Abercrombie, who commanded the troops deſtined to act againſt the French at Crown Point and Ticonderoga, attacked the lines at Ticonderoga, and was defeated with a terrible ſlaughter of his troops. After his defeat, he returned to his camp at Lake George.

The next year, more effectual meaſures were taken to ſubdue the French in America. General Prideaux and Sir William Johnſon began the operations of the campaign by taking the French fort near Niagara.† General Amherſt took poſſeſſion of the forts at Crown Point and Ticonderoga, which the French had abandoned.

* See page 117.

† General Prideaux was killed by the burſting of a mortar before the ſurrender of the French.

But

But the decisive blow which proved fatal to the French interests in America, was the defeat of the French army, and the taking of Quebec, by the brave General Wolfe. This hero was slain in the beginning of the action on the plains of Abram, and Monsieur Montcalm, the French commander, likewise lost his life. The loss of Quebec was soon followed by the capture of Montreal, by General Amherst, and Canada has remained ever since in possession of the English.

Colonel Grant, in 1761, defeated the Cherokees in Carolina, and obliged them to sue for peace. The next year Martinico was taken by Admiral Rodney and General Monckton; and also the island of Grenada, St. Vincents, and others. The capture of these was soon followed by the surrender of the Havannah, the capital of the island of Cuba.

In 1763, a definitive treaty of peace was concluded at Paris, between Great Britain, France, and Spain; by which the English ceded to the French several islands which they had taken from them in the West Indies, but were confirmed in the possession of all North America on this side the Mississippi, except the island of Orleans.

But this war, however brilliant the successes and glorious the event, proved the cause of great and unexpected misfortunes to Great Britain. Engaged with the combined powers of France and Spain, during several years, her exertions were surprising and her expense immense. To discharge the debts of the nation, the parliament was obliged to have recourse to new expedients for raising money. Previous to the last treaty in 1763, the parliament had been satisfied to raise a revenue from the American colonies by a monopoly of their trade.

It will be proper here to observe, that there were four kinds of government established in the British American Colonies. The first was a charter government, by which the powers of legislation were vested in a governor, council, and assembly, chosen by the people. Of this kind were the governments of Connecticut and Rhode Island. The second was a proprietary government, in which the proprietor of the province was governor; although he generally resided abroad, and administered the government by a deputy of his own appointment; the assembly only being chosen by the people. Such were the governments of Pennsylvania and Maryland; and originally of New Jersey and Carolina. The third kind was that of royal government, where the governor and council were appointed by the crown, and the assembly by the people. Of this kind were the governments of New Hampshire, New York, New Jersey, (after the year 1702) Virginia, the Carolinas, after the resignation of the proprietors, in 1728, and Georgia. The fourth kind was that of Massachusetts, which differed from all the rest. The governor was appointed by the king; so far it was a royal government; but the members of the council were elected by the representatives of the people. The governor, however, had a right to negative a certain number, but not to fill up vacancies thus occasioned. This variety of governments created different degrees of dependence on the crown. In the royal government, to render a law valid, it was constitutionally required that it should be ratified by the king; but the charter governments were empowered to enact laws and no ratification by the king was necessary. It was only required that such laws should not be contrary to the laws of England. The charter of Connecticut is express to this purpose.

At the beginning of the last war with France, commissioners from many of the colonies had assembled at Albany, and proposed that a great council should be formed by deputies from the several colonies, which, with a general governor to be appointed by the crown, should be empowered to take measures for the common safety, and to raise money for the execution of their designs. This proposal was not relished by the

Britiſh miniſtry; but in place of this plan, it was propoſed, that the governors of the colonies, with the aſſiſtance of one or two of their council, ſhould aſſemble and concert meaſures for the general defence; erect forts, levy troops, and draw on the treaſury of England for monies that ſhould be wanted; but the treaſury to be reimburſed by a tax on the colonies, to be laid by the Engliſh parliament. To this plan, which would imply an avowal of the right of parliament to tax the colonies, the provincial aſſemblies objected with unſhaken firmneſs. It ſeems therefore that the Britiſh parliament, *before* the war, had it in contemplation to exerciſe the right they claimed of taxing the colonies at pleaſure, without permitting them to be repreſented. Indeed it is obvious that they laid hold of the alarming ſituation of the colonies, about the year 1754 and 1755, to force them into an acknowledgement of the right, or to the adoption of meaſures that might afterwards be drawn into precedent. The colonies, however, with an uncommon foreſight and firmneſs, defeated all their attempts. The war was carried on by requiſitions on the colonies for ſupplies of men and money, or by voluntary contributions.

But no ſooner was peace concluded, than the Engliſh parliament reſumed the plan of taxing the colonies; and to juſtify their attempts, ſaid, that the money to be raiſed, was to be appropriated to defray the expenſe of defending them in the late war.

The firſt attempt to raiſe a revenue in America appeared in the memorable *ſtamp act*, paſſed March 22, 1765; by which it was enacted that certain inſtruments of writing, as bills, bonds, &c. ſhould not be valid in law, unleſs drawn on ſtamped paper, on which a duty was laid. When this bill was brought in, Mr. Charles Townſend concluded a ſpeech in its favour, with words to the following effect, "And now, will theſe Americans, children planted by our care, nouriſhed up by our indulgence, till they are grown to a degree of ſtrength and opulence, and protected by our arms, will they grudge to contribute their mite to relieve us from the heavy weight of that burden which we lie under?" To which Colonel Barre replied. "They planted by your care! No, your oppreſſions planted them in America. They fled from tyranny to a then uncultivated and unhoſpitable country, where they expoſed themſelves to almoſt all the hardſhips to which human nature is liable; and among others to the cruelty of a ſavage foe, the moſt ſubtle, and I will take upon me to ſay, the moſt formidable of any people upon the face of God's earth; and yet, actuated by principles of true Engliſh liberty, they met all hardſhips with pleaſure, compared with thoſe who ſuffered in their own country, from the hands of thoſe who ſhould have been their friends.—They nouriſhed up by your indulgence! They grew by your neglect of them. As ſoon as you began to care about them, that care was exerciſed in ſending perſons to rule them in one department and another, who were perhaps the deputies of deputies to ſome members of this houſe, ſent to ſpy out their liberties, to miſrepreſent their actions and to prey upon them.—Men whoſe behaviour, on many occaſions, has cauſed the blood of thoſe ſons of liberty to recoil within them.—Men promoted to the higheſt ſeats of juſtice, ſome, who to my knowledge were glad, by going to a foreign country, to eſcape being brought to the bar of a court of juſtice in their own.—They protected by your arms! They have nobly taken up arms in your defence, have exerted a valour amidſt their conſtant and laborious induſtry, for the defence of a country whoſe frontier was drenched in blood, while its interior parts yielded all its little ſavings to your emolument; and believe me, remember I this day told you ſo, that the ſame ſpirit of freedom which actuated that people at firſt, will accompany them ſtill: but prudence forbids me to explain myſelf farther. God knows, I do not at this time ſpeak from any motives of party heat; what I deliver are the genuine ſentiments of my heart. However

However ſuperior to me in general knowledge and experience, the reſpectable body of this houſe may be, yet I claim to know more of America than moſt of you, having ſeen and been converſant in that country. The people I believe are as truly loyal as any ſubjects the king has, but a people jealous of their liberties, and who *will* vindicate them, if ever they ſhould be violated: but the ſubject is too delicate—I will ſay no more."

No ſooner was this act publiſhed in America, than it raiſed a general alarm. The people were filled with apprehenſions at an act which they ſuppoſed to be an attack on their conſtitutional rights. The colonies petitioned the king and parliament for a redreſs of the grievance, and formed aſſociations for the purpoſe of preventing the importation and uſe of Britiſh manufactures, until the act ſhould be repealed. This ſpirited and unanimous oppoſition of the Americans produced the deſired effect; and on the 18th of March, 1766, the ſtamp act was repealed. The news of the repeal was received in the colonies with univerſal joy, and the trade between them and Great Britain was renewed on the moſt liberal footing.

The parliament, by repealing this act ſo obnoxious to their American brethren, did not intend to lay aſide the ſcheme of raiſing a revenue in the colonies, but merely to change the mode. Accordingly the next year, they paſſed an act, laying a certain duty on glaſs, tea, paper, and painters colours; articles which were much wanted, and not manufactured in America. This act kindled the reſentment of the Americans, and excited a general oppoſition to the meaſure; ſo that parliament thought proper, in 1770, to take off theſe duties, except three-pence a pound on tea. Yet this duty, however trifling, kept alive the jealouſy of the coloniſts, and their oppoſition to parliamentary taxation continued and increaſed.

But it muſt be remembered that the inconvenience of paying the duty was not the ſole, nor principal cauſe of the oppoſition; it was the *principle*, which, once admitted, would have ſubjected the colonies to unlimited parliamentary taxation, without the privilege of being repreſented. The *right*, abſtractly conſidered, was denied; and the ſmalleſt attempt to eſtabliſh the claim by precedent, was uniformly reſiſted. The Americans could not be deceived as to the views of parliament; for the repeal of the ſtamp act was accompanied with an unequivocal declaration, 'that the parliament had a right to make laws of ſufficient validity, to bind the colonies in all caſes whatſoever.'

The colonies therefore entered into meaſures to encourage their own manufactures, and home productions, and to retrench the uſe of foreign ſuperfluities; while the importation of tea was prohibited. In the royal and proprietary governments, and in Maſſachuſetts, the governors and people were in a ſtate of continual warfare. Aſſemblies were repeatedly called, and ſuddenly diſſolved. While ſitting, the aſſemblies employed the time in ſtating grievances and framing remonſtrances. To inflame theſe diſcontents, an act of parliament was paſſed, ordaining that the governors and judges ſhould receive their ſalaries of the crown; thus making them independent of the provincial aſſemblies, and removeable only at the pleaſure of the king.

Theſe arbitrary proceedings, with many others not here mentioned,* could not fail of producing a rupture.

On the ſecond of March, a fray took place in Boſton, near Mr. Gray's ropewalk, between a private ſoldier of the 29th regiment, and an inhabitant. The former was

* See an enumeration of grievances in the "Act of Independence," and in a variety of petitions to the king and parliament.

ſupported by his comrades, the latter by the rope-makers, till ſeveral on both ſides were involved in the conſequences. On the fifth a more dreadful ſcene was preſented. The ſoldiers, when under arms, were preſſed upon, inſulted and pelted by a mob armed with clubs, ſticks, and ſnowballs covering ſtones. They were alſo dared to fire. In this ſituation, one of the ſoldiers who had received a blow, in reſentment fired at the ſuppoſed aggreſſor. This was followed by a ſingle diſcharge from ſix others. Three of the inhabitants were killed, and five were dangerouſly wounded. The town was immediately in commotion. Such was the temper, force, and number of the inhabitants, that nothing but an engagement to remove the troops out of the town, together with the advice of moderate men, prevented the townſmen from falling on the ſoldiers. The killed were buried in one vault, and in a moſt reſpectful manner, in order to expreſs the indignation of the inhabitants at the ſlaughter of their brethren, by ſoldiers quartered among them, in violation of their civil liberties. Capt. Preſton, who commanded the party which fired on the inhabitants, was committed to jail, and afterwards tried. The captain, and ſix of the men, were acquitted. Two were brought in guilty of man-ſlaughter. It appeared on the trial, that the ſoldiers were abuſed, inſulted, threatened and pelted, before they fired. It was alſo proved, that only ſeven guns were fired by the eight priſoners. Theſe circumſtances induced the jury to make a favourable verdict. The reſult of the trial reflected great honour on John Adams, and Joſiah Quincy, Eſqrs. the council for the priſoners; and alſo on the integrity of the jury, who ventured to give an upright verdict, in defiance of popular opinions.

The conſequences of this tragical event ſunk deep in the minds of the people, and were made ſubſervient to important purpoſes. The anniverſary of it was obſerved with great ſolemnity for 13 years. Eloquent orators were ſucceſſively employed to deliver an annual oration to preſerve the remembrance of it freſh in their minds. On theſe occaſions the bleſſings of liberty—the horrors of ſlavery—the dangers of a ſtanding army—the rights of the colonies, and a variety of ſuch topics, were repreſented to the public view under their moſt pleaſing and alarming forms. Theſe annual orations adminiſtered fuel to the fire of liberty, and kept it burning, with an inceſſant flame.*

In 1773, the ſpirit of the Americans broke out into open violence. The Gaſpee, an armed ſchooner belonging to his Britannic Majeſty, had been ſtationed at Providence, in Rhode Iſland, to prevent ſmuggling. The vigilance of the commander irritated the inhabitants to that degree, that about two hundred armed men entered the veſſel at night, compelled the officers and men to go aſhore, and ſet fire to the ſchooner. A reward of five hundred pounds, offered by government for apprehending any of the perſons concerned in this daring act, produced no effectual diſcovery.

About this time, the diſcovery and publication of ſome private confidential letters, written by the royal officers in Boſton, to perſons in office in England, ſerved to confirm the apprehenſions of the Americans, with reſpect to the deſigns of the Britiſh government. It was now made obvious that more effectual meaſures would be taken to eſtabliſh the ſupremacy of the Britiſh Parliament over the colonies. The letters recommended deciſive meaſures, and the writers were charged, by the exaſperated Americans, with betraying their truſt and the people they governed.

As the reſolutions of the colonies not to import or conſume tea, had, in a great meaſure, deprived the Engliſh government of a revenue from this quarter, the parliament formed a ſcheme of introducing tea into America, under cover of the Eaſt

* See Ramſay's Hiſtory of the American Revolution, p. 90. Printed for J. Stockdale.

India Company. For this purpoſe an act was paſſed, enabling the company to export all ſorts of teas, duty free, to any place whatever. The company departed from their uſual mode of doing buſineſs, and became their own exporters. Several ſhips were freighted with teas, and ſent to the American colonies, and factors were appointed to receive and diſpoſe of their cargoes.

The Americans, determined to oppoſe the revenue ſyſtem of the Engliſh parliament in every poſſible ſhape, conſidered the attempt of the Eaſt India Company to evade the reſolutions of the colonies, and diſpoſe of teas in America, as an indirect mode of taxation, ſanctioned by the authority of parliament. The people aſſembled in various places, and in the large commercial towns, took meaſures to prevent the landing of the teas. Committees were appointed, and armed with extenſive powers to inſpect merchants books, to propoſe teſts, and to make uſe of other expedients to fruſtrate the deſigns of the Eaſt India Company. The ſame ſpirit pervaded the people from New Hampſhire to Georgia. In ſome places, the conſignees of the teas were intimidated ſo far as to relinquiſh their appointments, or to enter into engagements not to act in that capacity. The cargo ſent to South Carolina was ſtored, the conſignees being reſtrained from offering the tea for ſale. In other provinces, the ſhips returned back without diſcharging their cargoes.

It was otherwiſe in Maſſachuſetts. The tea ſhips deſigned for the ſupply of Boſton were conſigned to the ſon, couſins, and particular friends of Governor Hutchinſon. When they were called upon to reſign, they anſwered, "That it was out of their power." The collector refuſed to give a clearance, unleſs the veſſels were diſcharged of dutiable articles. The governor refuſed to give a paſs for the veſſels, unleſs properly qualified from the cuſtom-houſe. The governor likewiſe requeſted Admiral Montague to guard the paſſages out of the harbour, and gave orders to ſuffer no veſſels, coaſters excepted, to paſs the fortreſs, from the town, without a paſs ſigned by himſelf. From a combination of theſe circumſtances, the return of the tea veſſels from Boſton was rendered impoſſible. The inhabitants then had no alternative, but to prevent the landing of the tea, or to ſuffer it to be landed, and depend on the unanimity of the people not to purchaſe it, or to deſtroy the tea, or to ſuffer a deep laid ſcheme againſt their ſacred liberties to take effect. The firſt would have required inceſſant watching by night, as well as by day, for a period of time, the duration of which no one could compute. The ſecond would have been viſionary to childiſhneſs, by ſuſpending the liberties of a growing country, on the ſelf-denial and diſcretion of every tea drinker in the province. They viewed the tea as a vehicle of an unconſtitutional tax, and as inſeparably aſſociated with it. To avoid the one they reſolved to deſtroy the other. About ſeventeen perſons, dreſſed as Indians, repaired to the tea ſhips, broke open 342 cheſts of tea, and without doing any other damage, diſcharged their contents into the water.*

No ſooner did the news of this deſtruction of the tea reach Great Britain, than the parliament determined to puniſh that devoted town. On the king's laying the American papers before them, a bill was brought in and paſſed, to "diſcontinue the landing and diſcharging, lading and ſhipping of goods, wares, and merchandizes, at the town of Boſton, or within the harbour."

This act, paſſed March 25, 1774, and called *The Boſton Port Bill*, threw the inhabitants into the greateſt conſternation. The town of Boſton paſſed a reſolution, expreſſing their ſenſe of this oppreſſive meaſure, and a deſire that all the colonies would concur to ſtop all importations from Great Britain. Moſt of the colonies entered into ſpirited

* Ramſay's Hiſtory, p. 99.

ſpirited reſolutions on this occaſion, to unite with Maſſachuſetts in a firm oppoſition to the unconſtitutional meaſures of the parliament. The firſt of June, the day on which the Port Bill was to take place, was appointed to be kept as a day of humiliation, faſting and prayer throughout the colonies, to ſeek the Divine direction and aid, in that critical and gloomy juncture of affairs.

It ought here to be obſerved, that this rational and pious cuſtom of obſerving faſts in times of diſtreſs and impending danger, and of celebrating days of public thankſgiving, after having received ſpecial tokens of Divine favour, has ever prevailed in New England ſince its firſt ſettlement, and in ſome parts of other States. Theſe public ſupplications and acknowledgements to heaven at the commencement of hoſtilities, and during the whole progreſs of the war, were more frequent than uſual, and were attended with uncommon fervour and ſolemnity. They were conſidered by the people, as an humble appeal to heaven for the juſtneſs of their cauſe, and deſigned to manifeſt their dependence on the GOD OF HOSTS for aid and ſucceſs in maintaining it againſt their hoſtile brethren. The prayers and public diſcourſes of the clergy, who were friends to their ſuffering country, (and there were very few who were not) breathed the ſpirit of patriotiſm; and as their piety and integrity had generally ſecured to them the confidence of the people, they had great influence and ſucceſs in encouraging them to engage in its defence. In this way, that claſs of citizens aided the cauſe of their country; and to their pious exertions, under the GREAT ARBITER of human affairs, has been juſtly aſcribed no inconſiderable ſhare of the ſucceſs and victory that crowned the American arms.

During the height of the conſternation and confuſion which the Boſton Port Bill occaſioned, and at the very time when a town meeting was ſitting to conſider of it, General Gage, who had been appointed to the government of Maſſachuſetts, arrived in the harbour. His arrival, however, did not allay the popular ferment, or check the progreſs of the meaſures then taking, to unite the colonies in oppoſition to the oppreſſive acts of parliament. He was received with all the honours uſual on ſuch occaſions.

But the Port Bill was not the only act that alarmed the apprehenſions of the Americans. Determined to compel the province of Maſſachuſetts to ſubmit to their laws, parliament paſſed an act for "The better regulating government in the province of Maſſachuſetts Bay." The object of this act was to alter the government, as it ſtood on the charter of King William; and to make the judges and ſheriffs dependent on the king, and removeable at his will and pleaſure.

This act was ſoon followed by another, which ordained that any perſon, indicted for murder, or other capital offence, committed in aiding the magiſtrates in executing the laws, might be ſent by the governor, either to any other colony, or to Great Britain, for his trial.

This was ſoon followed by the Quebec Bill, which extended the bounds of that province, and granted many privileges to the Roman Catholics. The object of this bill was, to ſecure the attachment of that province to the crown of England, and prevent its joining the colonies in their reſiſtance of the laws of parliament.

But theſe meaſures did not intimidate the Americans. On the other hand, they ſerved to confirm their former apprehenſions of the evil deſigns of government, and to unite the colonies in their oppoſition. A correſpondence of opinion with reſpect to the unconſtitutional acts of parliament, produced an uniformity of proceedings in the colonies. The people generally concurred in a propoſition for holding a congreſs, by deputation from the ſeveral colonies, in order to concert meaſures for the preſervation

of their rights. Deputies were accordingly appointed, and met at Philadelphia, on the 26th of October, 1774.

In this firſt congreſs, the proceedings were cool, deliberate, and loyal; but marked with unanimity and firmneſs. Their firſt act was a declaration, or ſtate of their claims as to the enjoyment of all the rights of Britiſh ſubjects, and particularly that of taxing themſelves excluſively, and of regulating the internal police of the colonies. They alſo drew up a petition to the king, complaining of their grievances, and praying for a repeal of the unconſtitutional and oppreſſive acts of parliament. They ſigned an aſſociation to ſuſpend the importation of Britiſh goods, and the exportation of American produce, until their grievances ſhould be redreſſed. They ſent an addreſs to the inhabitants of Great Britain, and another to the people of America; in the former of which they enumerated the oppreſſive ſteps of parliament, and called on their Britiſh brethren not to aid the miniſtry in enſlaving their American ſubjects; and in the latter, they endeavoured to confirm the people in a ſpirited and unanimous determination to defend their conſtitutional rights.

In the mean time every thing in Maſſachuſetts wore the appearance of oppoſition by force. A new council for the governor had been appointed by the crown. New Judges were appointed and attempted to proceed in the execution of their office; but the juries refuſed to be ſworn under them. In ſome counties, the people aſſembled to prevent the courts from proceeding to buſineſs; and in Berkſhire they ſucceeded, ſetting an example of reſiſtance that has ſince been followed, in violation of the laws of the State.

In this ſituation of affairs, the day for the annual muſter of the militia approached. General Gage, apprehenſive of ſome violence, had the precaution to ſeize the magazines of ammunition and ſtores at Cambridge and Charleſtown, and lodged them in Boſton. This meaſure, with the fortifying of the neck of land which joins Boſton to the main land at Roxbury, cauſed an univerſal alarm and ferment.

On this occaſion, an aſſembly of delegates from all the towns in Suffolk county was called; and ſeveral ſpirited reſolutions were agreed to. Theſe reſolutions were prefaced with a declaration of allegiance; but they breathed a ſpirit of freedom that does honour to the delegates. They declared that the late acts of parliament, and the proceedings of General Gage, were glaring infractions of their rights and liberties, which their duty called them to defend by all lawful means.

This aſſembly remonſtrated againſt the fortification of Boſton Neck, and againſt the Quebec Bill; and reſolved upon a ſuſpenſion of commerce, an encouragement of arts and manufactures, the holding of a provincial congreſs, and a ſubmiſſion to the meaſures which ſhould be recommended by the continental congreſs. They recommended that the collectors of taxes ſhould not pay any money into the treaſury without further orders; they alſo recommended peace and good order, as they meant to act merely upon the defenſive.

In anſwer to their remonſtrance, General Gage aſſured them that he had no intention to prevent the free egreſs and regreſs of the inhabitants to and from the town of Boſton, and that he would not ſuffer any perſon under his command to injure the perſon or property of any of his Majeſty's ſubjects.

Previous to this, a general aſſembly had been ſummoned by the governor to meet at Salem; and notwithſtanding the writs had been countermanded by the governor's proclamation, on account of the violence of the times, and the reſignation of ſeveral of the new counſellors, yet in defiance of the proclamation, 90 of the newly-elected members met at the time and place appointed; and ſoon after reſolved themſelves into a

Provincial Congreſs and adjourned to Concord, 19 miles from Boſton, and after chooſing Mr. Hancock preſident, proceeded to buſineſs.

The congreſs addreſſed the governor with a rehearſal of their diſtreſſes, and took the neceſſary ſteps for defending their rights. They regulated the militia, made proviſion for ſupplying the treaſury, and furniſhing the people with arms; and ſuch was the enthuſiaſm and union of the people, that the recommendations of the provincial congreſs had the force of laws.

General Gage was incenſed at theſe meaſures. He declared in his anſwer to the addreſs, that Britain could never harbour the black deſign of enſlaving her ſubjects, and publiſhed a proclamation, in which he inſinuated that ſuch proceedings amounted to rebellion. He alſo ordered barracks to be erected for the ſoldiers; but he found difficulty in procuring labourers, either in Boſton or New York.

In the beginning of 1775, the fiſhery bills were paſſed in parliament, by which the colonies were prohibited to trade with Great Britain, Ireland, or the Weſt Indies, or to take fiſh on the banks of Newfoundland.

In the diſtreſſes to which theſe acts of parliament reduced the town of Boſton, the unanimity of the colonies was remarkable, in the large ſupplies of proviſion furniſhed by the inhabitants of different towns from New Hampſhire to Georgia, and ſhipped to the relief of the ſufferers.

Preparations began to be made, to oppoſe by force the execution of theſe acts of parliament. The militia of the country were trained to the uſe of arms—great encouragement was given for the manufacture of gunpowder, and meaſures were taken to obtain all kinds of military ſtores.

In February, Colonel Leſlie was ſent with a detachment of troops from Boſton, to take poſſeſſion of ſome cannon at Salem. But the people had intelligence of the deſign—took up the draw-bridge in that town, and prevented the troops from paſſing, until the cannon were ſecured; ſo that the expedition failed.

Proviſions and military ſtores were alſo collected and ſtored in different places, particularly at Concord. General Gage, though zealous for his royal maſter's intereſt, diſcovered a prevailing deſire after a peaceable accommodation. He wiſhed to prevent hoſtilities by depriving the inhabitants of the means neceſſary for carrying them on. With this view,* he determined to deſtroy the ſtores which he knew were collected for the ſupport of a provincial army; and wiſhing to accompliſh this without bloodſhed, he took every precaution to effect it by ſurpriſe, and without alarming the country. At eleven o'clock at night 800 grenadiers and light infantry, the flower of the royal army, embarked at the common, landed at Leechmore's Point and marched for Concord, under the command of Lieutenant-colonel Smith. Neither the ſecrecy with which this expedition was planned—the privacy with which the troops marched out, nor an order that no inhabitant ſhould leave Boſton, were ſufficient to prevent intelligence from being ſent to the country militia of what was going on. About two in the morning, 130 of the Lexington militia had aſſembled to oppoſe them, but the air being chilly, and intelligence reſpecting the regulars uncertain, they were diſmiſſed, with orders to appear again at the beat of drum. They collected a ſecond time, to the number of 70, between 4 and 5 o'clock in the morning, and the Britiſh regulars ſoon after made their appearance. Major Pitcairn, who led the advanced corps, rode up to them and called out, "Diſperſe, you rebels; throw down your arms and diſperſe." They ſtill continued in a

* It is believed that another object of this expedition was, to ſeize on the perſons of Meſſrs. Hancock and S. Adams, who by their ſpirited exertions had rendered themſelves obnoxious to General Gage.

body,

body, on which he advanced nearer—diſcharged his piſtol—and ordered his ſoldiers to fire. A diſperſion of the militia was the conſequence, but the firing of the regulars was nevertheleſs continued. Individuals finding they were fired upon, though diſperſing, returned the fire. Three or four of the militia were killed on the green. A few more were ſhot after they had begun to diſperſe. The royal detachment proceeded on to Concord, and executed their commiſſion. They diſabled two 24 pounders—threw 500lb. of ball into rivers and wells, and broke in pieces about 60 barrels of flour. Mr. John Buterick, major of a minute regiment, not knowing what had paſſed at Lexington, ordered his men not to give the firſt fire, that they might not be the aggreſſors. Upon his approaching near the regulars, they fired, and killed Captain Iſaac Davis, and one private of the provincial minute men. The fire was returned, and a ſkirmiſh enſued. The king's troops having done their buſineſs, began their retreat towards Boſton. This was conducted with expedition, for the adjacent inhabitants had aſſembled in arms and began to attack them in every direction. In their return to Lexington they were exceedingly annoyed, both by thoſe who preſſed on their rear, and others who poured in from all ſides, firing from behind ſtone walls, and ſuch like coverts, which ſupplied the place of lines and redoubts. At Lexington the regulars were joined by a detachment of 900 men under Lord Piercy, which had been ſent out by General Gage to ſupport Lieutenant-colonel Smith. This reinforcement, having two pieces of cannon, awed the provincials, and kept them at a greater diſtance; but they continued a conſtant, though irregular and ſcattering fire, which did great execution. The cloſe firing from behind the walls by good markſmen, put the regular troops in no ſmall confuſion, but they nevertheleſs kept up a briſk retreating fire on the militia and minute men. A little after ſunſet the regulars reached Bunker's-hill, worn down with exceſſive fatigue, having marched that day between thirty and forty miles. On the next day they croſſed Charleſtown ferry, to Boſton.

There never were more than 400 provincials engaged at one time, and often not ſo many. As ſome tired and gave out, others came up and took their places. There was ſcarcely any diſcipline obſerved among them. Officers and privates fired when they were ready and ſaw a royal uniform, without waiting for the word of command. Their knowledge of the country enabled them to gain opportunities, by croſſing fields and fences, and to act as flanking parties againſt the king's troops, who kept to the main road.

The regulars had 65 killed, 174 wounded, and 24 made priſoners. Of the provincials 49 were killed, and 39 wounded and miſſing.

Here was ſpilt the *firſt blood* in the late war; a war which ſevered America from the Britiſh empire. *Lexington* opened the firſt ſcene to this great drama, which, in its progreſs, exhibited the moſt illuſtrious characters and events, and cloſed with a revolution, equally glorious for the actors, and important in its conſequences to mankind.

This battle rouſed all America. The Provincial Congreſs of Maſſachuſetts being at this time in ſeſſion, voted that "An army of 30,000 men be immediately raiſed; that 13,600 be of their own province, and that a letter and delegate be ſent to the ſeveral colonies of New Hampſhire, Connecticut, and Rhode Iſland." The militia collected from all quarters, and Boſton, in a few days, was beſieged by twenty thouſand men. A ſtop was put to all intercourſe between the town and country, and the inhabitants were reduced to great want of proviſions. General Gage promiſed to let the people depart, if they would deliver up their arms. The people complied; but when the general had obtained their arms, he refuſed to let the people go.

This

This breach of faith, and the conſequences that attended it, were juſtly and greatly complained of; and although many, at different times, were permitted to leave the town, they were obliged to leave all their effects behind: ſo that many who had been uſed to live in eaſe and affluence, were at once reduced to extreme indigence and miſery. A circumſtance peculiarly and wantonly aggravating, and which was the ground of the bittereſt complaints of congreſs, was, that paſſports were granted and retained in ſuch a manner, as that families were broken, and the deareſt connections ſeparated; part being compelled to quit the town, and part cruelly retained againſt their inclination.

About the latter end of May a great part of the reinforcements ordered from Great Britain arrived at Boſton. Three Britiſh Generals, Howe, Burgoyne, and Clinton, whoſe behaviour in the preceding war had gained them great reputation, alſo arrived about the ſame time. General Gage, thus reinforced, prepared for acting with more deciſion; but before he proceeded to extremities, he conceived it due to ancient forms to iſſue a proclamation, holding forth to the inhabitants the alternative of peace or war. He therefore offered pardon in the king's name, to all who ſhould forthwith lay down their arms, and return to their reſpective occupations and peaceable duties, excepting only from the benefit of that pardon "Samuel Adams and John Hancock," whoſe offences were ſaid to be "of too flagitious a nature to admit of any other conſideration than that of condign puniſhment." He alſo proclaimed, that not only the perſons above named and excepted, but alſo all their adherents, aſſociates, and correſpondents ſhould be deemed guilty of treaſon and rebellion, and treated accordingly. By this proclamation it was alſo declared, "that as the courts of judicature were ſhut, martial law ſhould take place, till a due courſe of juſtice ſhould be re-eſtabliſhed." It was ſuppoſed that this proclamation was a prelude to hoſtilities, and preparations were accordingly made by the Americans. The heights of Charleſtown were ſo ſituated as to make the poſſeſſion of them a matter of great conſequence to either of the contending parties. Orders were therefore iſſued, June 16th, by the provincial commanders, that a detachment of a thouſand men ſhould intrench upon Breed's-hill.* Here the Americans, between midnight and morning, with uncommon expedition and ſilence, threw up a ſmall redoubt, which the Britiſh did not diſcover till the morning of the 17th, when they began an inceſſant firing and continued it till afternoon. With the intrepidity of veteran ſoldiers the Americans bore this fire, and proceeded to finiſh their redoubt, and to throw up a breaſt-work, extending eaſtward of it to the bottom of the hill. About noon General Gage detached Major-general Howe and Brigadier-general Pigot, with the flower of his army, in two detachments, amounting in the whole to nearly 3000 men.—They landed at a point about 150 or 200 rods S. E. of the redoubt, and deliberately prepared for the attack. While the troops, who firſt landed, were waiting for a reinforcement, the Americans on the left wing, towards Myſtic river, for their ſecurity, pulled up ſome adjoining poſt and rail fence, and ſet it down in two parallel lines, near each other, and filled the ſpace between with hay, which the day before was mowed and remained in the adjacent field. The Britiſh troops, in the mean time formed in two lines, and about 3 o'clock advanced ſlowly towards the Americans. The hills and ſteeples in Boſton, and the circumjacent country, were crowded with anxious ſpectators of the dubious conflict. While ſome felt for the honour of the Britiſh troops, multitudes, with a keener ſenſibility, felt for the liberties of a great and growing country. The attack commenced on the part of the Britiſh troops. The Americans had the precaution to

* Hiſtorians, through miſtake, have called the hill where the battle was fought, *Bunker's-hill*, which is a quarter of a mile north of Breed's-hill, where the battle was fought.

reſerve

reſerve their fire, till their enemies had approached within 10 or 12 rods of their works. They then began a well-directed and furious diſcharge of ſmall arms, which mowed down their enemies in ranks, and occaſioned a diſorderly and precipitate retreat. Their officers rallied them with difficulty, and puſhed them forward with their ſwords to a ſecond attack. They were in the ſame manner put to flight a ſecond time. With ſtill greater difficulty they were forced by General Howe to a third attack. By this time the powder of the Americans began to fail, and their redoubt was attacked on two ſides. Under theſe circumſtances, a retreat was ordered; the left wing of the Americans, N. E. of the redoubt, ſtill continuing their fire, ignorant of what had taken place on the right, till the Britiſh had nearly ſurrounded them. The retreat was effected, with an inconſiderable loſs, conſidering the greater part of the diſtance they had to paſs was completely expoſed to the inceſſant fire of the Glaſgow man of war and two floating batteries.

During the heat of this bloody action, by order of General Gage, Charleſtown was ſet on fire by a battery on Cops-hill, in Boſton, and a party from the Somerſet man of war lying in Charles river, and nearly 400 houſes, including ſix public buildings, were conſumed, with their furniture, &c. valued by 19 men under oath, at £156,900, ſpecie; and 2000 perſons reduced from affluence and mediocrity, to the moſt aggravated poverty and exile.*

The number of Americans engaged in this memorable action amounted to 1500 only. There have been few battles in modern wars in which, all circumſtances conſidered, there was a greater ſlaughter of men than in this ſhort engagement. The loſs of the Britiſh, as acknowledged by General Gage, amounted to 1054 men. Nineteen commiſſioned officers were killed and 70 wounded. The loſs of the Americans was 77 killed—278 wounded and miſſing.

The death of Major-general Warren, who four days before had received his commiſſion, and who, having had no command aſſigned him, fought this day as a volunteer, was particularly and greatly lamented. "To the pureſt patriotiſm, and the moſt undaunted bravery, he added the virtues of domeſtic life, the eloquence of an accompliſhed orator, and the wiſdom of an able ſtateſman."

About this time a ſcheme was laid by a number of gentlemen in Connecticut, to take poſſeſſion of Ticonderoga, where a great quantity of military ſtores were lodged, and which is the key to Canada. Having made the neceſſary preparations, and collected 270 men, chiefly *Green Mountain boys*, they rendezvouſed at Caſtleton where they were joined by Col. Allen, and ſhortly after by Col. Arnold from Cambridge, under commiſſion from the Provincial Congreſs. Col. Allen commanded this volunteer party. Having arrived at Lake Chaplain, oppoſite Ticonderoga, in the night, Cols. Allen and Arnold, with 83 men, croſſed over, and at the dawn of day entered the fort without reſiſtance, and called upon the commander, who was in bed, to ſurrender the fort. He aſked by what authority? Col. Allen replied—"I demand it in the name of the Great Jehovah and of the Continental Congreſs."—Thus the fort was captured, with its valuable ſtores and 48 priſoners. Crown Point was taken at the ſame time, by Col.

* This pleaſant town, (that part of it which was burnt) has ſince been rebuilt upon an improved plan, and in the fall of 1792, contained, beſides a large meeting houſe, alms houſe, ſchool houſe, and a number of ſtores and other buildings, about 215 dwelling houſes, inhabited by 234 families. The whole number of ſouls was 1254, of which 220 were males of 21 years and upwards. The number of males of upwards of 21 years in this town before the war was 360, of which, in April 1790, 100 only lived in Charleſtown, 135 had never returned, 125 had died. In November 1791, there were no leſs than 139 widows of men who were natives of Charleſtown, beſides 16 other widows of Charleſtown men, not natives, making in the whole 155, of whom 77 were in the town. At this time there were not more than 10 widowers.

Warren

Warren, and poſſeſſion obtained of all Lake Champlain, in the courſe of a few days, by a few determined men.

On the 15th of June, two days before the memorable battle on Breed's-hill, the Continental Congreſs unanimouſly appointed George Waſhington, Eſq;* a native of Virginia,

* Notwithſtanding it has often been aſſerted, with confidence, that *Preſident Waſhington* was a native of England, certain it is his anceſtors came from thence to this country ſo long ago as the year 1657. He, in the third deſcent after their migration, was born on the 11th of February, (old ſtyle) 1732, at the pariſh of Waſhington, in Weſtmoreland county, in Virginia. His father's family was numerous, and he was the firſt fruit of a ſecond marriage. His education having been principally conducted by a private tutor, at fifteen years old he was entered a midſhipman on board of a Britiſh veſſel of war ſtationed on the coaſt of Virginia, and his baggage prepared for embarkation; but the plan was abandoned on account of the reluctance his mother expreſſed to his engaging in that profeſſion.

Previous to this tranſaction, when he was but ten years of age, his father died, and the charge of the family devolved on his eldeſt brother. His eldeſt brother, a young man of the moſt promiſing talents, had a command in the colonial troops employed againſt Carthagena, and on his return from the expedition, named his new patrimonial manſion MOUNT VERNON, in honour of the admiral of that name, from whom he had received many civilities. He was afterwards made Adjutant-general of the militia of Virginia, but did not long ſurvive. At his deceaſe, the eldeſt ſon by the ſecond marriage inherited this ſeat, and a conſiderable landed property. In conſequence of the extenſive limits of the colony, the vacant office of Adjutant-general was divided into three diſtricts, and the *future Hero of America*, before he attained his twentieth year, began his military ſervice by a principal appointment in that department, with the rank of Major.

When he was little more than twenty-one years of age, an event occurred which called his abilities into public notice. In 1753, while the government of the colony was adminiſtered by Lieutenant-governor Dinwiddie, encroachments were reported to have been made by the French from Canada, on the territories of the Britiſh colonies, at the weſtward. Mr. Waſhington, who was ſent with plenary powers to aſcertain the facts, treat with the ſavages, and warn the French to deſiſt from their aggreſſions, performed the duties of his miſſion with ſingular induſtry, intelligence, and addreſs. His journal and report to Governor Dinwiddie, which were publiſhed, announced to the world that correctneſs of mind, manlineſs in ſtyle, and accuracy in mode of doing buſineſs, which have ſince characteriſed him in the conduct of more arduous affairs. But it was deemed, by ſome, an extraordinary circumſtance that ſo juvenile and inexperienced a perſon ſhould have been employed on a negociation, with which ſubjects of the greateſt importance were involved; ſubjects, which ſhortly after became the origin of a war between England and France, that raged for many years throughout every part of the globe.

It would not comport with the intended brevity of this ſketch, to mention in detail the fatigues he endured, the plans he ſuggeſted, or the ſyſtem he purſued for the defence of the frontiers, during this war, until the year 1758.

Tranquillity on the frontiers of the middle colonies having been reſtored, and the health of Colonel Waſhington having become extremelyd ebilitated by an inveterate pulmonary complaint, in 1759, he reſigned his military appointment.

His health was gradually re-eſtabliſhed. He married Mrs. Cuſtis,† a handſome and amiable young widow, poſſeſſed of an ample jointure; and ſettled as a planter and farmer on his eſtate at Mount Vernon, in Fairfax county.

After he left the army, until the year 1775, he cultivated the arts of peace. He was conſtantly a member of aſſembly, a magiſtrate of his county, and a judge of the court. He was elected a delegate to the firſt Congreſs in 1774; as well as to that which aſſembled in the year following. Soon after the war broke out, he was appointed, as we have mentioned, by Congreſs, Commander in Chief of the forces of the United Colonies.

It is the leſs neceſſary to particularize, in this place, his tranſactions in the courſe of the late war, becauſe the impreſſion which they made is yet freſh in every mind. But it is hoped poſterity will be taught, in what manner he transformed an undiſciplined body of peaſantry into a regular army of ſoldiers. Commentaries on his campaigns would undoubtedly be highly intereſting and inſtructive to future generations. The conduct of the firſt campaign, in compelling the Britiſh troops to abandon Boſton, by a bloodleſs victory, will merit a minute narration. But a volume would ſcarcely contain the mortifications he experienced, and the hazards to which he was expoſed, in 1776 and 1777, in contending againſt the proweſs of Britain, with an inadequate force. His good deſtiny and conſummate prudence, prevented want of ſucceſs from producing want of confidence on the part of the public; for want of ſucceſs is apt to lead to the adoption of pernicious counſels, through the levity of the people, or the ambition of their demagogues. Shortly after this period, ſprang up the only cabal that ever exiſted during his public life, to rob him of his reputation and command. It proved

† Preſident and Mrs. Waſhington were both born in the ſame year.

ginia, to the chief command of the American army. This gentleman had been a diſtinguiſhed and ſucceſsful officer in the preceding war, and ſeem deſtined by heaven to be the ſaviour of his country. He accepted the appointment with a diffidence which was a proof of his modeſty, his prudence, and his greatneſs; and by his matchleſs ſkill, fortitude, and perſeverance, conducted America through indeſcribable difficulties to independence and peace.

General Waſhington, with other officers appointed by Congreſs, arrived at Cambridge, and took command of the American army in July. From this time, the affairs of America began to aſſume the appearance of a regular and general oppoſition to the forces of Great Britain.

In autumn, a body of troops, under the command of General Montgomery, beſieged and took the garriſon at St. John's, which commands the entrance into Canada. The priſoners amounted to about ſeven hundred. General Montgomery purſued his ſucceſs, and took Montreal; and deſigned to puſh his victories to Quebec.

A body of troops, commanded by General Arnold, was ordered to march to Canada by the river Kennebek, and through the wilderneſs. After ſuffering every hardſhip, and the moſt diſtreſſing hunger, they arrived in Canada, and were joined by General Montgomery, before Quebec. This city, which was commanded by Governor Carleton, was immediately beſieged: but there being little hope of taking the town by a ſiege, it was determined to ſtorm it.

The garriſon of Quebec, at this time, conſiſted of about 1520 men, of which 800 were militia. The American army conſiſted of 800 men. General Montgomery having divided his little army into four detachments, ordered two feints to be made againſt the upper town, one by Colonel Livingſton, at the head of the Canadians, againſt St. John's Gate; the other by Major Brown againſt Cape Diamond; reſerving to himſelf and Colonel Arnold, the two principal attacks againſt the lower town. At

as impotent in effect, as it was audacious in deſign. In the three ſucceeding years the germ of diſcipline unfolded; and the ſources of America having been called into co-operation with the land and naval armies of France, produced the glorious campaign in 1781. From this time the gloom began to diſappear from our political horizon, and the affairs of the Union proceeded in a meliorating train, till a peace was moſt ably negociated by our ambaſſadors in Europe in 1783.

No perſon, who had not the advantage of being preſent when General Waſhington received the intelligence of peace, and who did not accompany him to his domeſtic retirement, can deſcribe the relief which that joyful event brought to his labouring mind, or the ſupreme ſatisfaction with which he withdrew to private life. From his triumphal entry into New York, upon the evacuation of that city by the Britiſh army, to his arrival at Mount Vernon, after the reſignation of his commiſſion to Congreſs, feſtive crowds impeded his paſſage through all the populous towns; the devotion of a whole people purſued him with prayers to Heaven for bleſſings on his head, while their gratitude ſought the moſt expreſſive language of manifeſting itſelf to him, as their common father and benefactor. When he became a private citizen, he had the unuſual felicity to find that his native State was among the moſt zealous in doing juſtice to his merits; and that ſtronger demonſtrations of affectionate eſteem (if poſſible) were given by the citizens of his neighbourhood, than by any other deſcription of men on the continent. But he has conſtantly declined accepting any compenſation for his ſervices, or proviſion for the augmented expences which have been incurred by him in conſequence of his public employment, although propoſals have been made in the moſt delicate manner, eſpecially by the States of Virginia and Pennſylvania.

The happineſs of private life he did not long enjoy. In 1789, by the unanimous voice of his countrymen, he was called to the dignified office of Chief Magiſtrate of the United States of America; which office he has ever ſince ſuſtained; and with how much dignity, prudence, and ability, the general applauſe of his conſtituents amply teſtify. The hiſtory of the life, and the delineation of the character of this truly great man, are ſubjects which will occupy many of the moſt entertaining and inſtructive pages of the future impartial hiſtories of America.

While true merit is eſteemed, or virtue honoured, mankind will never ceaſe to revere the memory of this Hero; and while gratitude remains in the human breaſt, the praiſes of WASHINGTON ſhall dwell on every American tongue.

five o'clock in the morning General Montgomery advanced againſt the lower town: he paſſed the firſt barrier, and was juſt opening to attack the ſecond, when he was killed, together with his Aid-de-camp, Captain M'Pherſon. This ſo diſpirited the men, that Colonel Campbell, on whom the command devolved, thought proper to draw them off. In the mean time Colonel Arnold, with 350 men, made a ſucceſsful attack on another part of the town. In the attack of the firſt battery, Colonel Arnold was wounded, and was obliged to be carried off the field of battle. His party, however, commanded by Captain Morgan of Virginia, proceeded, and entered the town; but not being joined by the other parties, was obliged to ſurrender to ſuperior force.

The loſs of the Americans in killed and wounded, was about 100, and 300 were taken priſoners. Hiſtorians will do juſtice to the bravery of the Provincial troops on this occaſion.

After the defeat, Colonel Arnold, who now commanded the troops, continued ſome months before Quebec, although his troops were reduced in numbers, and ſuffered incredibly from cold and ſickneſs.

The death of General Montgomery was greatly and ſincerely regretted on both ſides. "His many amiable qualities had procured him an uncommon ſhare of private affection, and his great abilities, an equal proportion of public eſteem. His name was mentioned in parliament with ſingular reſpect: the Miniſter himſelf acknowledged his worth, while he reprobated the cauſe in which he fell. He concluded an involuntary panegyric, by ſaying, "Curſe on his virtues, they have undone his country."*

About this time, the large and flouriſhing town of Norfolk in Virginia was burnt by order of Lord Dunmore, the then governor of that province.

General Gage went to England in September, and was ſucceeded in the command by General Howe.

Falmouth, a conſiderable town in the province of Main, in Maſſachuſetts, ſhared the fate of Norfolk; being laid in aſhes by order of the Britiſh admiral.

The Britiſh government entered into treaties with ſome of the German princes for about fourteen thouſand men, who were to be ſent to America the next year, to aſſiſt in ſubduing the colonies. The parliament alſo paſſed an act, forbidding all intercourſe with America; and while they repealed the Boſton port and fiſhery bills, they declared all American property on the high ſeas, forfeited to the captors.

Meaſures were taken to annoy the enemy in Boſton: for this purpoſe, batteries were opened on ſeveral hills, from whence ſhot and bombs were thrown into the town. But the batteries which were opened on Dorcheſter point had the beſt effect, and ſoon obliged General Howe to abandon the town. In March 1776 the Britiſh troops embarked for Halifax, and General Waſhington entered Boſton in triumph.

In the enſuing ſummer, a ſmall ſquadron of ſhips commanded by Sir Peter Parker, and a body of troops under the Generals Clinton and Cornwallis, attempted to take Charleſton, the capital of South Carolina. The ſhips made a violent attack upon the

* General Montgomery deſcended from a reſpectable family in the North of Ireland, and was born in the year 1737. His attachment to liberty was innate, and matured by a fine education and an excellent underſtanding. Having married a wife, and purchaſed an eſtate in New York, he was, from theſe circumſtances, as well as from his natural love of freedom, and from a conviction of the juſtneſs of her cauſe, induced to conſider himſelf as an American. From principle, he early embarked in her cauſe, and quitted the ſweets of eaſy fortune, the enjoyment of a loved and philoſophical rural life, with the higheſt domeſtic felicity, to take an active ſhare in all the hardſhips and dangers that attend the ſoldier's life.

Before he came over to America, he had been an officer in the ſervice of England, and had ſucceſsfully fought her battles with the immortal Wolfe at Quebec, in the war of 1756, on the very ſpot, where, when fighting under the ſtandard of freedom, he was doomed to fall in arms againſt her.

fort on Sullivan's Iſland, but were repulſed with great loſs, and the expedition was abandoned.

In July, Congreſs publiſhed their declaration of independence, which ſeparated America from Great Britain. This great event took place two hundred and eighty-four years after the diſcovery of America by Columbus—one hundred and ſixty-ſix from the firſt effectual ſettlement in Virginia, and one hundred and fifty-ſix from the firſt ſettlement of Plymouth in Maſſachuſetts, which were the earlieſt Engliſh ſettlements in America.

Juſt after this declaration, General Howe, with a powerful force, arrived near New York, and landed his troops on Staten Iſland. General Waſhington was in New York with about thirteen thouſand men, who were encamped either in the city or the neighbouring fortifications.

The operations of the Britiſh began by the action on Long Iſland in the month of Auguſt. The American Generals Sullivan and Lord Sterling, with a large body of men, were made priſoners. The night after the engagement, a retreat was ordered and executed with ſuch ſilence, that the Americans left the iſland without alarming their enemies, and without loſs.

In September, the city of New York was abandoned by the American army, and taken by the Britiſh.

In November, Fort Waſhington on York Iſland was taken, and more than two thouſand Americans made priſoners. Fort Lee, oppoſite to Fort Waſhington, on the Jerſey ſhore, was ſoon after taken, but the garriſon eſcaped.

About the ſame time, General Clinton was ſent with a body of troops to take poſſeſſion of Rhode Iſland, and ſucceeded. In addition to all theſe loſſes and defeats, the American army ſuffered by deſertion, and more by ſickneſs, which was epidemic, and very mortal.

The northern army at Ticonderoga was in a diſagreeable ſituation, particularly after the battle on Lake Champlain, in which the American force, conſiſting of a few light veſſels, under the command of Generals Arnold and Waterbury, was totally diſperſed. But General Carleton, inſtead of purſuing his victory, landed at Crown Point, reconnoitered our poſts at Ticonderoga and Mount Independence, and returned to winter quarters in Canada.

The American army might now be ſaid to be no more. All that now remained of an army, which, at the opening of the campaign, amounted to at leaſt twenty-five thouſand men, did not now exceed three thouſand. The term of their engagements being expired, they returned in large bodies to their families and friends; the few, who, from perſonal attachment, local circumſtances, or ſuperior perſeverance and bravery, continued with the Generals Waſhington and Lee, were too inconſiderable to appear formidable in the view of a powerful and victorious enemy.

In this alarming and critical ſituation of affairs, General Lee, through an imprudent careleſſneſs, which ill became a man in his important ſtation, was captured by a party of Britiſh light horſe, commanded by Colonel Harcourt. This unfortunate circumſtance gave a ſevere ſhock to the remaining hopes of the little army, and rendered their ſituation truly diſtreſſing.

While theſe things were tranſacting in New Jerſey, General Waſhington, far from being diſcouraged by the loſs of General Lee, and always ready to improve every advantage to raiſe the drooping ſpirits of his handful of men, had made a ſtand on the Pennſylvania ſide of the Delaware. He collected his ſcattered forces, called in the aſſiſtance of the Pennſylvania militia, and on the night of the 25th of December, 1776, when

When the enemy were lulled into ſecurity by the idea of his weakneſs, and by the inclemency of the night, which was remarkably boiſterous, as well as by the fumes of a Chriſtmas eve, he croſſed the river, and, at the breaking of day, marched down to Trenton, and ſo completely ſurpriſed them, that the greater part of the detachment, which were ſtationed at this place, ſurrendered after a ſhort reſiſtance. The horſemen and a few others made their eſcape at the oppoſite end of the town. Upwards of nine hundred Heſſians were taken priſoners at this time.

The addreſs in planning and executing this enterprize reflected the higheſt honour on the commander, and the ſucceſs revived the deſponding hopes of America. The loſs of General Mercer, a gallant officer, at Princeton, was the principal circumſtance that allayed the joys of victory.

The following year, 1777, was diſtinguiſhed by very memorable events in favour of America. On the opening of the campaign, Governor Tryon was ſent with a body of troops to deſtroy the ſtores at Danbury in Connecticut. This plan was executed, and the town moſtly burnt. The enemy ſuffered in their retreat, and the Americans loſt General Wooſter, a brave and experienced officer.

General Preſcot was taken from his quarters on Rhode Iſland, by the addreſs and enterprize of Colonel Barton, and conveyed priſoner to the continent.

General Burgoyne, who commanded the northern Britiſh army, took poſſeſſion of Ticonderoga, which had been abandoned by the Americans. He puſhed his ſucceſſes, croſſed Lake George, and encamped upon the banks of the Hudſon, near Saratoga. His progreſs, however, was checked by the defeat of Colonel Baum, near Bennington, in which the undiſciplined militia, under General Stark, diſplayed unexampled bravery, and captured almoſt the whole detachment. The militia aſſembled from all parts of New England to ſtop the progreſs of General Burgoyne.

Theſe, with the regular troops, formed a reſpectable army, commanded by General Gates. After two ſevere actions, in which the Generals Lincoln and Arnold behaved with uncommon gallantry, and were wounded, General Burgoyne found himſelf encloſed with brave troops, and was forced to ſurrender his whole army, amounting to five thouſand ſeven hundred and fifty-two men, into the hands of the Americans.* This memorable event happened on the 17th of October, 1777; and diffuſed an univerſal joy over America, and laid a foundation for the treaty with France.

But before theſe tranſactions, the main body of the Britiſh forces had embarked at New York, ſailed up the Cheſapeak, and landed at the head of Elk river. The army ſoon began their march for Philadelphia. General Waſhington had determined to oppoſe them, and for this purpoſe made a ſtand, firſt at Red Clay Creek, and then upon the heights near Brandywine Creek. Here the armies engaged, and the Americans were overpowered, and ſuffered great loſs. The enemy ſoon purſued their march, and took poſſeſſion of Philadelphia towards the cloſe of September.

Not long after, the two armies were again engaged at Germantown, and in the beginning of the action, the Americans had the advantage; but by ſome unlucky accident, the fortune of the day was turned in favour of the Britiſh. Both ſides ſuffered conſiderable loſſes; on the ſide of the Americans was General Naſh.

In an attack upon the forts at Mud Iſland and Red Bank, the Heſſians were unſucceſsful, and their commander, Colonel Donop, killed. The Britiſh alſo loſt the Auguſta, a ſhip of the line. But the forts were afterwards taken, and the navigation

* When General Burgoyne left Canada, his army conſiſted of 10,000 men, together with one of the moſt complete and grand trains of artillery that was ever ſent from Great Britain.

of

of the Delaware opened. General Washington was reinforced, with a part of the troops which had composed the northern army, under General Gates; and both armies retired to winter quarters.

In October, the same month in which General Burgoyne was taken at Saratoga, General Vaughan, with a small fleet, sailed up Hudson's river, and burnt Kingston, a beautiful Dutch settlement, on the west side of the river.

The beginning of the next year, 1778, was distinguished by a treaty of alliance between France and America; by which we obtained a powerful and generous ally. When the English ministry were informed that this treaty was on foot, they dispatched commissioners to America to attempt a reconciliation. But America would not now accept their offers. Early in the spring, Count d'Estaing, with a fleet of fifteen sail of the line, was sent by the court of France to assist America.

General Howe left the army, and returned to England; the command then devolved upon Sir Henry Clinton.

In June the British army left Philadelphia, and marched for New York: on their march they were annoyed by the Americans; and at Monmouth a very regular action took place between part of the armies; the enemy were repulsed with great loss. General Lee, for his misconduct that day, was suspended, and was never afterwards permitted to join the army.

General Lee's conduct, at several times before this, had been very suspicious. In December, 1776, he lay at Chatham, about eleven miles from Elizabeth Town, with a brigade of troops, when a great quantity of baggage was stored at Elizabeth Town, under a guard of only five hundred Hessians. General Lee was apprised of this, and might have surprised the guard and taken the baggage; but he neglected the opportunity, and after several marches and counter-marches between Troy, Chatham, and Morris Town, he took up his quarters at, or near White's tavern, where he was surprised and taken prisoner by a party of the British horse. He was heard to say, repeatedly, that General Washington would ruin a fine army. It was suspected that he had designs to supplant the General, and his friends attempted to place him at the head of the army. General Washington's prudent delays and cautious movements afforded General Lee's friends many opportunities to spread reports unfavourable to his character. It was insinuated, with some success, that General Washington wanted courage and abilities. Reports of this kind, at one time, rendered General Lee very popular, and, it is supposed, he wished to frustrate General Washington's plans, in order to increase the suspicions already entertained of his generalship, and turn the public clamour in his own favour. His conduct at Monmouth was, by some, supposed to have proceeded from such a design; for he commanded the flower of the American army, and was not destitute of courage.

In August, General Sullivan, with a large body of troops, attempted to take possession of Rhode Island, but did not succeed. Soon after, the stores and shipping at Bedford, in Massachusetts, were burnt by a party of the British troops. The same year, Savannah, the capital of Georgia, was taken by the British, under the command of Colonel Campbell.

In the following year, 1779, General Lincoln was appointed to the command of the southern army.

Governor Tryon and Sir George Collier made an incursion into Connecticut, and burnt the towns of Fairfield and Norwalk. But the American arms were crowned with success in a bold attack upon Stoney Point, which was surprized and taken by the brave

brave General Wayne, in the night of the 15th of July. Five hundred men were made priſoners, with little loſs on either ſide.

A party of Britiſh forces attempted this ſummer to build a fort on Penobſcot river, for the purpoſe of cutting timber in the neighbouring foreſt. A plan was laid in Maſſachuſetts to diſlodge them, and a conſiderable fleet collected for the purpoſe: but the plan failed of ſucceſs, and the whole marine force fell into the hands of the Britiſh, except ſome veſſels which were burnt by the Americans themſelves.

In October, General Lincoln and Count d'Eſtaing made an aſſault upon Savannah; but they were repulſed with conſiderable loſs. In this action, the celebrated Poliſh Count Pulaſki, who had acquired the reputation of a brave ſoldier, was mortally wounded.

In this ſummer General Sullivan marched with a body of troops into the Indian country, in the weſtern part of the New York State, and burnt and deſtroyed all their proviſions and ſettlements that fell in their way.

On the opening of the campaign the next year, 1780, the Britiſh troops left Rhode Iſland. An expedition, under General Clinton and Lord Cornwallis, was undertaken againſt Charleſton, South Carolina, where General Lincoln commanded. This town, after a cloſe ſiege of about ſix weeks, was ſurrendered to the Britiſh commander; and General Lincoln, and the whole American garriſon, were made priſoners.

General Gates was appointed to the command in the ſouthern department, and another army collected. In Auguſt, Lord Cornwallis attacked the American troops at Camden, in South Carolina, and routed them with conſiderable loſs. He afterwards marched through the ſouthern States, and ſuppoſed them entirely ſubdued.

The ſame ſummer, the Britiſh troops made frequent incurſions from New York into the Jerſeys, ravaging and plundering the country.

In July, a French fleet, under Monſieur de Ternay, with a body of land forces, commanded by Count de Rochambeau, arrived at Rhode Iſland, to the great joy of the Americans.

This year was alſo diſtinguiſhed by the treachery of General Arnold. General Waſhington having ſome buſineſs to tranſact at Weathersfield in Connecticut, left Arnold to command the important poſt of Weſt Point, which guards a paſs in Hudſon's river, about ſixty miles from New York. Arnold's conduct in the city of Philadelphia, the preceding winter, had been cenſured; and the treatment he received in conſequence, had given him offence.

He determined to take revenge, and for this purpoſe, he entered into a negociation with Sir Henry Clinton to deliver Weſt Point, and the army, into the hands of the Britiſh. While General Waſhington was abſent, he diſmounted the cannon in ſome of the forts, and took other ſteps to render the taking of the poſt eaſy for the enemy.

But by a providential diſcovery the whole plan was defeated. Major Andre, Adjutant-general in the Britiſh army, aid-du-camp to General Clinton, a brave officer, who had been ſent up the river as a ſpy, to concert the plan of operations with Arnold, was taken, condemned by a court-martial, and executed. Arnold made his eſcape, by getting on board the Vulture, a Britiſh veſſel which lay in the river. General Waſhington arrived in camp juſt after Arnold made his eſcape, and reſtored order in the garriſon.

After the defeat of General Gates, in Carolina, General Greene was appointed to command

command in the ſouthern department.* From this period, things in that quarter wore a more favourable aſpect. Colonel Tarleton, the active commander of the Britiſh legion, was defeated by General Morgan, the intrepid commander of the riflemen.

After a variety of movements the two armies met at Guilford, in Carolina. Here was one of the beſt fought actions during the war. General Greene and Lord Cornwallis exerted themſelves at the head of their reſpective armies; and although the Americans were obliged to retire from the field, yet the Britiſh army ſuffered an immenſe loſs, and could not purſue the victory. The action happened on the 15th March, 1781.

In the ſpring, General Arnold, who was made a brigadier-general in the Britiſh ſervice, with a ſmall number of troops ſailed for Virginia, and plundered the country. This called the attention of the French fleet to that quarter, and a naval engagement took place between the Engliſh and French, in which ſome of the Engliſh ſhips were much damaged, and one entirely diſabled.

After the battle of Guilford, General Greene moved towards South Carolina, to drive the Britiſh from their poſts in that State. Here Lord Rawdon obtained an inconſiderable advantage over the Americans, near Camden. But General Greene more than recovered this diſadvantage, by the brilliant and ſucceſsful action at the Eutaw Springs; where General Marian diſtinguiſhed himſelf, and the brave Col. Waſhington was wounded and taken priſoner.

Lord Cornwallis, finding General Greene ſucceſsful in Carolina, marched to Virginia, collected his forces, and fortified himſelf in York Town. In the mean time Arnold made an incurſion into Connecticut, burnt a part of New London, took Fort Griſwold by ſtorm, and put the garriſon to the ſword. The garriſon conſiſted chiefly of men collected from the little town of Groton, which, by the ſavage cruelty of the Britiſh officer who commanded the attack, loſt, in one hour, almoſt all its heads of families. The brave Colonel Ledyard, who commanded the fort, was ſlain with his own ſword after he had ſurrendered.

The Marquis de la Fayette,† the brave and generous nobleman, whoſe ſervices command the gratitude of every American, had been diſpatched with about two thouſand

* General Greene was born at Warwick, in the State of Rhode Iſland, about the year 1741, of reputable parents, belonging to the ſociety of *Friends*. He was endowed with an uncommon degree of judgement and penetration; his diſpoſition was benevolent, and his manners affable. At an early period of life he was choſen a member of the Aſſembly, and he diſcharged his truſt to the entire ſatisfaction of his conſtituents.

After the battle of Lexington, three regiments of troops were raiſed in Rhode Iſland, and the command of them given to Mr. Greene, who was nominated a brigadier-general. His merit and abilities, both in council and in the field, were ſoon noticed by General Waſhington, and in Auguſt 1776 he was appointed Major-general. His action with the Britiſh troops at Eutaw Springs was one of the beſt conducted, and moſt ſucceſsful engagements that took place during the war. For this General Greene was honoured by Congreſs with a Britiſh ſtandard and a gold medal. As a reward for his particular ſervices in the ſouthern department, the State of Georgia preſented him with a large and valuable tract of land on an iſland near Savannah.

After the war he returned to his native State. The contentions and bad policy of that State induced him to leave it and retire to his eſtate in Georgia.

He removed his family in October 1785; but in June the next ſummer, the extreme heat, and the fatigue of a walk, brought on a diſorder that put a period to his life, on the 19th of the ſame month. He lived univerſally loved and reſpected, and his death was univerſally lamented.

His body was interred in Savannah, and the funeral proceſſion attended by the Cincinnati.

† The Marquis de la Fayette was born about the year 1757. At the age of nineteen he eſpouſed the cauſe of America, with all the ardour which the moſt generous philanthropy could inſpire. At a very early period of

ſand light infantry from the main army, to watch the motions of Lord Cornwallis in Virginia. He proſecuted this expedition with the greateſt military ability. Although his force was much inferior to that of the enemy, he obliged them to leave Richmond and Williamſburgh, and to ſeek protection under their ſhipping.

About the laſt of Auguſt, Count de Graſſe arrived in the Cheſapeek and blocked up the Britiſh troops at York-town. Admiral Greaves, with a Britiſh fleet, appeared off the Capes, and an action ſucceeded; but it was not deciſive.

General Waſhington had before this time moved the main body of his army, together with the French troops, to the ſouthward; and as ſoon as he heard of the arrival of the French fleet in the Cheſapeek, he made rapid marches to the head of Elk, where embarking, the troops ſoon arrived at York-town.

A cloſe ſiege immediately commenced, and was carried on with ſuch vigour, by the combined forces of America and France, that Lord Cornwallis was obliged to ſurrender. This glorious event, which took place on the 19th of October, 1781, decided the conteſt in favour of America; and laid the foundation of a general peace.

A few months after the ſurrender of Cornwallis, the Britiſh evacuated all their poſts in South Carolina and Georgia, and retired to the main army in New York.

The next ſpring, 1782, Sir Guy Carleton arrived in New York, and took the command of the Britiſh army in America: immediately on his arrival, he acquainted General Waſhington and Congreſs, that negociations for peace had commenced at Paris.

On the 30th of November, 1782, the proviſional articles of peace and reconciliation, between Great Britain and the American States, were ſigned at Paris; by

of the war he determined to embark from his native country for the United States: before he could complete his intention, intelligence arrived in Europe, that the American inſurgents, reduced to two thouſand men, were flying through Jerſey before a Britiſh force of thirty thouſand regulars. The news ſo effectually extinguiſhed the little credit which America had in Europe, in the beginning of the year 1777, that the Commiſſioners of Congreſs at Paris, though they had previouſly encouraged his project, could not procure a veſſel to forward his intentions. Under theſe circumſtances, they thought it but honeſt to diſſuade him from the preſent proſecution of his perilous enterpriſe. It was in vain they acted ſo candid a part. The flame which America had kindled in his breaſt, could not be extinguiſhed by her misfortunes. 'Hitherto,' ſaid he, in the true ſpirit of patriotiſm, 'I have only cheriſhed your cauſe—now I am going to ſerve it. The lower it is in the opinion of the people, the greater will be the effect of my departure; and ſince you cannot get a veſſel, I ſhall purchaſe and fit out one to carry your diſpatches to Congreſs and myſelf to America.' Whilſt this veſſel was preparing he viſited England, was introduced to the King's miniſter and many of the nobility and firſt characters of the nation. By this means he was enabled to form a good judgement of men and things there. He embarked and arrived in Charleſton early in the year 1777. Congreſs ſoon conferred on him the rank of major-general: he accepted the appointment, but not without exacting two conditions, which diſplayed the elevation of his ſpirit; the one, that he ſhould ſerve on his own expence; the other, that he ſhould begin his ſervices as a volunteer.

He was ſoon appointed to command an expedition to Canada. The plan was to croſs the lakes on the ice; the object, to ſeize Montreal and St. John's. He was now at the age of twenty, and muſt have keenly experienced the allurements of independent command; but his cool judgement, and honeſt heart, reſtrained him from indulging a paſſion for military fame, under circumſtances which might have injured the cauſe which he had ſo zealouſly eſpouſed. He found that, in caſe of his proceeding, the army under his command would be in danger of experiencing a fate ſimilar to that of the unfortunate Burgoyne. With a boldneſs of judgement that would have done honour to the moſt experienced general, and without advancing beyond Albany, he relinquiſhed the expedition. Soon after he received the thanks of Congreſs for his prudence.

In the four campaigns which ſucceeded the arrival of the Marquis de la Fayette in America, he gave repeated proofs of his military talents in the middle and eaſtern States; but the events that took place under his command in Virginia, contributed moſt to his military glory.

Some time after the capture of Cornwallis, the Marquis de la Fayette went to France, where he uſed his endeavours to promote the commercial and political intereſts of theſe States, and to effect a revolution in his native country in favour of liberty. It remains for future ages to pourtray the virtues and exploits of this truly great man—this friend to human nature—this ſecond WASHINGTON.

which Great Britain acknowledged the independence and ſovereignty of the United States of America. Theſe articles were ratified by a definitive treaty, September 3d, 1783. This peace was negociated on the part of Great Britain by Mr. Oſwald, and the definitive treaty was ſigned by Mr. Hartley; and on the part of the United States by John Adams, John Jay,* and Benjamin Franklin,† Eſquires.

Thus

* John Jay, Eſq. is a deſcendent of one of the French Proteſtant Emigrants, who came to America, in conſequence of the Revolution of the Edict of Nantz, in 1685. It is remarkable that among the deſcendents of theſe emigrants, ſome of whom ſettled in New York, and ſome in Boſton, there have been the following eminent characters—James Bowdoin, Eſq. who had been Governor of the Commonwealth of Maſſachuſetts, and at his death was Preſident of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences; Henry Laurens, Eſq. who has been Preſident of Congreſs, and Ambaſſador to a foreign court; Elias Boudinot, Eſq. who has been Preſident of Congreſs, and is now a Repreſentative; and John Jay, Eſq. who has been Preſident of Congreſs, Ambaſſador to a foreign Court, and is now Chief Juſtice of the American States.

† Dr. Franklin was born in Boſton, January 6th, 1706, O. S. He was educated to the buſineſs of printing. In the firſt twenty-four years of his life he paſſed through an uncommon variety of ſcenes, which he improved to valuable purpoſes. He early diſcovered a ſtrong and diſtinguiſhing mind, and a fertile inventive genius. About the age of 24 he married Miſs Read of Philadelphia, where he had eſtabliſhed himſelf as a printer. In 1736 he was choſen Clerk of the General Aſſembly of Pennſylvania; and the year following was appointed Poſtmaſter in Philadelphia. In 1744, he broached the idea of the American Philoſophical Society, and had the pleaſure to find it meet with all the ſucceſs he could deſire. He was the principal inſtrument alſo in planning and eſtabliſhing the Academy of Philadelphia, from which have ſprung the College and Univerſity of that city.

In 1747, and for twenty years after, ſucceſſively, he was choſen a repreſentative to the Aſſembly for the city of Philadelphia; in which ſituation he was highly reſpected and ſingularly uſeful. He was appointed joint Poſt-maſter General with Mr. William Hunter in 1753. He was greatly inſtrumental in carrying into effect Dr. Bond's plan for an hoſpital in Philadelphia, the advantages of which have been extenſively experienced. By this time his character as a philoſopher was known in Europe as well as America, and he received the honorary degree of Maſter of Arts from Yale and Harvard Colleges.

In 1754, he was appointed one of the Commiſſioners from Pennſylvania to attend the celebrated Albany Congreſs, in order to deviſe a plan for defending the country againſt the French. Here he drew up his "Albany Plan of Union," which was unanimouſly agreed to by Congreſs, but, though wiſely adapted to preſerve the harmony between Great Britain and her Colonies, was ultimately rejected.

In 1757, the Aſſembly of Pennſylvania, indignant at the obſtinacy of the governors, who were ſhackled with inſtructions not to aſſent to any tax bill, that did not exempt the eſtates of the proprietors from contributing to the public ſervice, determined to ſend an agent to London, to petition the King for redreſs. Mr. Franklin was appointed for this purpoſe, and ably negociated the buſineſs; for which, on his return to Philadelphia, he received the thanks of the General Aſſembly.

His diſtinguiſhed literary reputation procured him, while in England, the honorary title of Doctor of Laws from Edinburgh and Oxford Univerſities.

Some time after this, he was again ſent to England, by the Aſſembly of Pennſylvania, with a petition to have a new form of government eſtabliſhed, and to be taken under the royal protection. Before his return to America, he travelled, in 1766, into Germany, and in 1767, into France; and wherever he appeared, he was received with the higheſt reſpect and veneration. His endeavours to prevent the enaction of the *ſtamp act*, the ability with which he ſuſtained his examination at the bar of the Houſe of Commons, his obtaining and forwarding to Boſton the inſidious letters of Governor Hutchinſon, procured for him, on his return to America, the moſt unbounded applauſe of his countrymen. He was ſoon elected a member of Congreſs; and in 1776, was choſen with John Adams and Edward Rutledge, Eſquires, a Committee of Congreſs to wait on Lord Howe, and to inquire into the extent of his powers to treat of the reſtoration of peace. Lord Howe having expreſſed his concern at being obliged to diſtreſs thoſe whom he ſo much regarded, Dr. Franklin aſſured him, that the Americans, out of reciprocal regard, would endeavour to leſſen, as much as poſſible, the pain he might feel on their account, by taking the utmoſt care of themſelves.

In 1776, a convention was called, in Pennſylvania, to eſtabliſh a new form of government. Dr. Franklin was appointed Preſident. The latter end of the ſame year he was ſent to France, where, with the aſſiſtance of Mr. Silas Dean, he negociated a treaty with France, Feb. 1778.

We have already mentioned his being one of the three Commiſſioners who negociated the peace of 1783. He returned to America in 1785, and was choſen Preſident of the Supreme Executive Council of Pennſylvania, and in 1787, was appointed a delegate from that State to the auguſt body which formed the preſent frame of government of the United States.

On

Thus ended a long and arduous conflict, in which Great Britain expended near an hundred millions of money, with an hundred thouſand lives, and won nothing. America endured every cruelty and diſtreſs from her enemies; loſt many lives and much treaſure; but delivered herſelf from a foreign dominion, and gained a rank among the nations of the earth.

Holland acknowledged the independence of the United States on the 19th of April, 1782; Sweden, February 5th, 1783; Denmark, the 25th of February; Spain, in March, and Ruſſia, in July 1783.

No ſooner was peace reſtored by the definitive treaty, and the Britiſh troops withdrawn from the country, than the United States began to experience the defects of their general government. While an enemy was in the country, fear, which had firſt impelled the colonies to aſſociate in mutual defence, continued to operate as a band of political union. It gave to the reſolutions and recommendations of Congreſs the force of laws, and generally commanded a ready acquieſcence on the part of the State legiſlatures. Articles of confederation and perpetual union had been framed in Congreſs, and ſubmitted to the conſideration of the States, in the year 1778. Some of the States immediately acceded to them; but others, which had not unappropriated lands, heſitated to ſubſcribe a compact, which would give an advantage to the States which poſſeſſed large tracts of unlocated lands, and were thus capable of a great ſuperiority in wealth and population. All objections however had been overcome, and by the acceſſion of Maryland in March 1781, the articles of conſederation were ratified, as the frame of government for the United States.

Theſe articles, however, were framed during the rage of war, when a principle of common ſafety ſupplied the place of a coercive power in government, by men who could have had no experience in the art of governing an extenſive country, and under circumſtances the moſt critical and embarraſſing. To have offered to the people, at that time, a ſyſtem of government armed with the powers neceſſary to regulate and control the contending intereſts of thirteen States, and the poſſeſſions of millions of people, might have raiſed a jealouſy between the States or in the minds of the people at large, that would have weakened the operations of war, and perhaps have rendered an union impracticable. Hence the numerous defects of the confederation.

On the concluſion of peace, theſe defects began to be felt. Each State aſſumed the right of diſputing the propriety of the reſolutions of Congreſs, and the intereſt of an individual State was placed in oppoſition to the common intereſt of the union. In

On the 17th of April, 1790, after a long and painful illneſs, he reſigned a life which had been ſingularly devoted to the welfare of his country and the good of mankind.

Among the many teſtimonies of reſpect paid to his memory, the Congreſs of the United States, and the National Aſſembly of France, went into mourning on his death.

Dr. Franklin poſſeſſed an original genius. The faculties of his mind qualified him to penetrate into every ſcience; and his ſingular and unremitting diligence left no field of knowledge unexplored. He was eminently diſtinguiſhed as a politician, and a ſcholar, and if poſſible more ſo as a man and a citizen. He was great in common things, and his life was uſeful beyond moſt men that have lived. The whole tenor of his life was a perpetual lecture againſt the idle, the extravagant, and the proud. It was his principal aim to inſpire mankind with a love of induſtry, temperance, and frugality. By a judicious diviſion of time, he acquired the art of doing every thing to advantage. In whatever ſituation he was placed, by chance or deſign, he extracted ſomething uſeful for himſelf or others. His manners were eaſy and accommodating, and his addreſs winning and reſpectful. All who knew him ſpeak of him as an agreeable man; and all who have heard of him, applaud him as a very uſeful one. A man ſo wiſe and ſo amiable, could not but have many admirers and many friends. *

* American Muſeum, Vol. VIII.

addition to this ſource of diviſion, a jealouſy of the powers of Congreſs began to be excited in the minds of people.

This jealouſy of the privileges of freemen had been rouſed by the oppreſſive act of the Britiſh parliament; and no ſooner had the danger from this quarter ceaſed, than the fears of people changed their object, and were turned againſt their own rulers.

In this ſituation, there were not wanting men of induſtry and talents, who had been enemies to the revolution, and who embraced the opportunity to multiply the apprehenſions of people and increaſe the popular diſcontents. A remarkable inſtance of this happened in Connecticut. As ſoon as the tumults of war had ſubſided, an attempt was made to convince the people, that the act of Congreſs paſſed in 1778, granting to the officers of the army, half-pay for life, was highly unjuſt and tyrannical; and that it was but the firſt ſtep towards the eſtabliſhment of penſions and an uncontrolable deſpotiſm. The act of Congreſs, paſſed in 1783, commuting half-pay for life, for five years full pay, was deſigned to appeaſe the apprehenſions of people, and to convince them that this gratuity was intended merely to indemnify the officers for their loſſes by the depreciating of the paper currency, and not to eſtabliſh a precedent for the granting of penſions. This act however did not ſatisfy the people, who ſuppoſed that the officers had been generally indemnified for the loſs of their pay by the grants made them from time to time by the legiſlatures of the ſeveral States. Beſides, the act, while it gave five years full pay to the officers, allowed but one year's pay to the privates; a diſtinction which had great influence in exciting and continuing the popular ferment, and one that turned a large ſhare of the public rage againſt the officers themſelves.

The moment an alarm was raiſed reſpecting this act of Congreſs, the enemies of our independence became active in blowing up the flame, by ſpreading reports unfavourable to the general government, and tending to create public diſſenſions. Newſpapers, in ſome parts of the country, were filled with inflammatory publications; while falſe reports and groundleſs inſinuations were induſtriouſly circulated to the prejudice of Congreſs and the officers of the late army. Among a people feelingly alive to every thing that could affect the rights for which they had been contending, theſe reports could not fail of having a powerful effect; the clamour ſoon became general; the officers of the army, it was believed, had attempted to raiſe their fortunes on the diſtreſſes of their fellow citizens, and Congreſs become the tyrants of their country.

Connecticut was the ſeat of this uneaſineſs; although other States were much agitated on the occaſion. But the inhabitants of that State, accuſtomed to order and a due ſubordination to the laws, did not proceed to outrages; they took their uſual mode of collecting the ſenſe of the State—aſſembled in town meetings—appointed committees to meet in convention, and conſult what meaſures ſhould be adopted to procure a redreſs of their grievances. In this convention, which was held at Middletown, ſome nugatory reſolves were paſſed, expreſſing the diſapprobation of the half-pay act, and the ſubſequent commutation of the grant for five years whole pay. The ſame ſpirit alſo diſcovered itſelf in the aſſembly at their October ſeſſion 1783. A remonſtrance againſt the acts in favour of the officers was framed in the Houſe of Repreſentatives, and notwithſtanding the Upper Houſe refuſed to concur in the meaſure, it was ſent to Congreſs.

During this ſituation of affairs, the public odium againſt the officers was augmented by another circumſtance. The officers, juſt before the diſbanding of the army, had

had formed a ſociety, called by the name of the *Cincinnati*, after the Roman Dictator, Cincinnatus.

Whatever were the real views of the framers of this inſtitution, its deſign was generally underſtood to be harmleſs and honourable. The oſtenſible views of the ſociety could not however ſcreen it from popular jealouſy. A ſpirited pamphlet appeared in South Carolina, the avowed production of Mr. Burke, one of the judges of the ſupreme court in that State, in which the author attempted to prove that the principles, on which the ſociety was formed, would, in proceſs of time, originate and eſtabliſh an order of nobility in this country, which would be repugnant to the genius of our republican governments, and dangerous to liberty. This pamphlet appeared in Connecticut, during the commotions raiſed by the half-pay and commutation acts, and contributed not a little to ſpread the flame of oppoſition.

Notwithſtanding the diſcontents of the people were general, and ready to burſt forth in ſedition, yet men of information, viz. the officers of government, the clergy, and perſons of liberal education, were moſtly oppoſed to the unconſtitutional ſteps taken by the committees and convention at Middletown. They ſupported the propriety of the meaſures of Congreſs, both by converſation and writing, proved that ſuch grants to the army were neceſſary to keep the troops together, and that the expenſe would not be enormous nor oppreſſive. During the cloſe of the year 1783, every poſſible exertion was made to enlighten the people, and ſuch was the effect of the arguments uſed by the minority, that in the beginning of the following year, the oppoſition ſubſided, the committees were diſmiſſed, and tranquillity reſtored to the State. In May, the legiſlature were able to carry ſeveral meaſures which had before been extremely unpopular. An act was paſſed granting the impoſt of five per cent. to Congreſs; another giving great encouragement to commerce; and ſeveral towns were incorporated with extenſive privileges, for the purpoſe of regulating the exports of the State, and facilitating the collection of debts.

The oppoſition to the congreſſional acts in favour of the officers, and to the order of the Cincinnati, did not riſe to the ſame pitch in the other States as in Connecticut; yet it produced much diſturbance in Maſſachuſetts, and ſome others. Jealouſy of power had been univerſally ſpread among the people of the United States. The deſtruction of the old forms of governments, and the licentiouſneſs of war, had, in a great meaſure, broken their habits of obedience; their paſſions had been inflamed by the cry of deſpotiſm; and like centinels, who have been ſuddenly ſurpriſed by the approach of an enemy, the ruſtling of a leaf was ſufficient to give them an alarm. This ſpirit of jealouſy operated with other cauſes to relax the energy of federal operations.

During the war, vaſt ſums of paper currency had been emitted by Congreſs, and large quantities of ſpecie had been introduced, towards the cloſe of the war, by the French army, and the Spaniſh trade. This plenty of money enabled the States to comply with the firſt requiſitions of Congreſs; ſo that during two or three years, the federal treaſury was, in ſome meaſure, ſupplied. But when the danger of war had ceaſed, and the vaſt importations of foreign goods had leſſened the quantity of circulating ſpecie, the States began to be very remiſs in furniſhing their proportion of monies. The annihilation of the credit of the paper bills had totally ſtopped their circulation, and the ſpecie was leaving the country in cargoes for remittances to Great Britain; ſtill the luxurious habits of the people, contracted during the war, called for new ſupplies of goods, and private gratification ſeconded the narrow policy of ſtate intereſt in defeating the operations of the general government.

Thus

Thus the revenues of Congreſs were annually diminiſhing; ſome of the States wholly neglecting to make proviſion for paying the intereſt of the national debt; others making but a partial proviſion, until the ſcanty ſupplies received from a few of the richeſt States, would hardly ſatisfy the demands of the civil liſt.

This weakneſs of the federal government, in conjunction with the flood of certificates or public ſecurities, which Congreſs could neither fund nor pay, occaſioned them to depreciate to a very inconſiderable value. The officers and ſoldiers of the late army, and thoſe who furniſhed ſupplies for public exigencies, were obliged to receive for wages theſe certificates, or promiſſory notes, which paſſed at a fifth, an eighth, or a tenth of their nominal value; being thus deprived at once of the greateſt part of the reward due for their ſervices. Some indeed profited by ſpeculations in theſe evidences of the public debt; but ſuch as were under a neceſſity of parting with them, were robbed of that ſupport which they had a right to expect and demand from their countrymen.

Pennſylvania indeed made a proviſion for paying the intereſt of her debts, both ſtate and federal; aſſuming her ſuppoſed proportion of the continental debt, and giving the creditors of her own State notes in exchange for thoſe of the United States. The reſources of that State are immenſe, but ſhe was not able to make punctual payments, even in a depreciated paper currency.

Maſſachuſetts, in her zeal to comply fully with the requiſitions of Congreſs, and ſatisfy the demands of her own creditors, laid a heavy tax upon the people. This was the immediate cauſe of the rebellion in that State, in 1786. But a heavy debt lying on the State, added to burdens of the ſame nature, upon almoſt every corporation within it; a decline, or rather an extinction of public credit; a relaxation and corruption of manners, and a free uſe of foreign luxuries; a decay of trade and manufactures, with a prevailing ſcarcity of money; and, above all, individuals involved in debt to each other. Theſe were the real, though more remote cauſes of the inſurrection. It was the tax which the people were required to pay, that cauſed them to feel the evils which we have enumerated—this called forth all their other grievances; and the firſt act of violence committed was the burning or deſtroying of the tax bill. This ſedition threw the State into a convulſion which laſted about a year; courts of juſtice were violently obſtructed; the collection of debts was ſuſpended; and a body of armed troops, under the command of General Lincoln, was employed during the winter of 1786, to diſperſe the inſurgents. Yet ſo numerous were the latter in the counties of Worceſter, Hampſhire, and Berkſhire, and ſo obſtinately combined to oppoſe the execution of law by force, that the governor and council of the State thought proper not to intruſt General Lincoln with military powers, except to act on the defenſive, and to repel force with force, in caſe the inſurgents ſhould attack him. The leaders of the rebels, however, were not men of talents; they were deſperate, but without fortitude; and even while they were ſupported with a ſuperior force, they appeared to be impreſſed with that conſciouſneſs of guilt, which awes the moſt daring wretch, and makes him ſhrink from his purpoſe. This appears by the conduct of a large party of the rebels before the magazine at Springfield, where General Shepard, with a ſmall guard, was ſtationed to protect the continental ſtores. The inſurgents appeared upon the plain, with a vaſt ſuperiority of numbers, but a few ſhot from the artillery made the multitude retreat in diſorder with the loſs of four men. This ſpirited conduct of General Shepard, with the induſtry, perſeverance, and prudent firmneſs of General Lincoln, diſperſed the rebels—drove the leaders from the State, and reſtored tranquillity. An act of indemnity was paſſed in the legiſlature for all the inſurgents, except a few of the leaders, on condition they

ſhould become peaceable ſubjects, and take the oath of allegiance. The leaders afterwards petitioned for pardon, which, from motives of policy, was granted by the legiſlature.*

But the loſs of public credit, popular diſturbances, and inſurrections, were not the only evils which were generated by the peculiar circumſtances of the times. The emiſſions of bills of credit and tender laws were added to the black catalogue of political diſorders.

The expedient of ſupplying the deficiencies of ſpecie, by emiſſions of paper bills, was adopted very early in the colonies. The expedient was obvious and produced good effects. In a new country, where population is rapid, and the value of lands increaſing, the farmer finds an advantage in paying legal intereſt for money; for if he can pay the intereſt by his profits, the increaſing value of his lands will in a few years diſcharge the principal.

In no colony was this advantage more ſenſibly experienced than in Pennſylvania. The emigrations to that province were numerous—the natural population rapid—and theſe circumſtances combined, advanced the value of real property to an aſtoniſhing degree. As the firſt ſettlers there, as well as in other provinces, were poor, the purchaſe of a few foreign articles drained them of ſpecie. Indeed for many years, the balance of trade muſt have neceſſarily been greatly againſt the colonies.

But bills of credit, emitted by the State and loaned to the induſtrious inhabitants, ſupplied the want of ſpecie, and enabled the farmer to purchaſe ſtock. Theſe bills were generally a legal tender in all colonial or private contracts, and the ſums iſſued did not generally exceed the quantity requiſite for a medium of trade; they retained their full nominal value in the purchaſe of commodities: but as they were not received by the Britiſh merchants, in payment of their goods, there was a great demand for ſpecie and bills, which occaſioned the latter at various times to appreciate. Thus was introduced a difference between the Engliſh ſterling money and the currencies of the colonies, which remains to this day.†

The advantages the colonies had derived from bills of credit, under the Britiſh government, ſuggeſted to Congreſs, in 1775, the idea of iſſuing bills for the purpoſe of carrying on the war; and this was perhaps their only expedient. Money could not be raiſed by taxation—it could not be borrowed. The firſt emiſſions had no other effect upon the medium of commerce, than to drive the ſpecie from circulation. But when the paper ſubſtituted for ſpecie had, by repeated emiſſions, augmented the ſum in circulation, much beyond the uſual ſum of ſpecie, the bills began to loſe their value. The depreciation continued in proportion to the ſums emitted, until ſeventy, and even one hundred and fifty nominal paper dollars, were hardly an equivalent for one Spaniſh milled dollar. Still, from the year 1775 to 1781, this depreciating paper currency was almoſt the only medium of trade. It ſupplied the place of ſpecie, and enabled Congreſs to ſupport a numerous army; until the ſum in circulation amounted to two hundred millions of dollars. But about the year 1780, ſpecie began to be plentiful, being introduced by the French army, a private trade with the Spaniſh iſlands, and an illicit intercourſe with the Britiſh garriſon at New York. This circumſtance accelerated the depreciation of paper bills, until their value had ſunk almoſt

* See an elegant and impartial Hiſtory of this Rebellion, by George Richards Minot, Eſq.

† A Dollar in Sterling money is 4s. 6d. But the price of a Dollar roſe in New England currency to 6s. in New York to 8s. in New Jerſey, Pennſylvania, and Maryland, to 7s. 6d. in Virginia to 6s. in North Carolina to 8s. in South Carolina and Georgia to 4s. 8d. This difference, originating between paper and ſpecie, or bills, continued afterwards to exiſt in the nominal eſtimation of gold and ſilver.

to

to nothing. In 1781, the merchants and brokers in the ſouthern States, apprehenſive of the approaching fate of the currency, puſhed immenſe quantities of it ſuddenly into New England—made vaſt purchaſes of goods in Boſton—and inſtantly the bills vaniſhed from circulation.

The whole hiſtory of this continental paper is a hiſtory of public and private frauds. Old ſpecie debts were often paid in a depreciated currency—and even new contracts for a few weeks or days were often diſcharged with a ſmall part of the value received. From this plenty and fluctuating ſtate of the medium ſprung hoſts of ſpeculators and itinerant traders, who left their honeſt occupations for the proſpect of immenſe gains, in a fraudulent buſineſs, that depended on no fixed principles, and the profits of which could be reduced to no certain calculations.

To increaſe theſe evils, a project was formed to fix the prices of articles, and reſtrain perſons from giving or receiving more for any commodity than the price ſtated by authority. Theſe regulating acts were reprobated by every man acquainted with commerce and finance; as they were intended to prevent an effect without removing the cauſe. To attempt to fix the value of money, while ſtreams of bills were inceſſantly flowing from the treaſury of the United States, was as ridiculous as an attempt to reſtrain the riſing of water in rivers amidſt ſhowers of rain.

Notwithſtanding all oppoſition, ſome States framed and attempted to enforce theſe regulating acts. The effect was, a momentary apparent ſtand in the price of articles; innumerable acts of colluſion and evaſion among the diſhoneſt; numberleſs injuries done to the honeſt; and finally a total diſregard of all ſuch regulations, and the conſequential contempt of laws and the authority of the magiſtrate.

During theſe fluctuations of buſineſs, occaſioned by the variable value of money, people loſt ſight, in ſome meaſure, of the ſteady principles which had before governed their intercourſe with each other. Speculation followed and relaxed the rigour of commercial obligations.

Induſtry likewiſe had ſuffered by the flood of money which had deluged the States. The prices of produce had riſen in proportion to the quantity of money in circulation, and the demand for the commodities of the country. This made the acquiſition of money eaſy, and indolence and luxury, with their train of deſolating conſequences, ſpread themſelves among all deſcriptions of people.

But as ſoon as hoſtilities between Great Britain and America were ſuſpended, the ſcene was changed. The bills emitted by Congreſs had for ſome time before ceaſed to circulate; and the ſpecie of the country was ſoon drained off to pay for foreign goods, the importations of which exceeded all calculation. Within two years from the cloſe of the war, *a ſcarcity of money* was the general cry. The merchants found it impoſſible to collect their debts, and make punctual remittances to their creditors in Great Britain; and the conſumers were driven to the neceſſity of retrenching their ſurperfluities in living, and of returning to their ancient habits of induſtry and œconomy.

This change was however progreſſive and ſlow. In many of the States which ſuffered by the numerous debts they had contracted, and by the diſtreſſes of war, the people called aloud for emiſſions of paper bills to ſupply the deficiency of a medium. The depreciation of the continental bills was a recent example of the ill effects of ſuch an expedient, and the impoſſibility of ſupporting the credit of paper was urged by the oppoſers of the meaſure as a ſubſtantial argument againſt adopting it. But nothing would ſilence the popular clamor; and many men of the firſt talents and eminence united their voices with that of the populace. Paper money had formerly maintained its

credit

credit, and been of ſingular utility: and paſt experience, notwithſtanding a change of circumſtances, was an argument in its favor that bore down all oppoſition.

Pennſylvania, although one of the richeſt States in the union, was the firſt to emit bills of credit, as a ſubſtitute for ſpecie. But the revolution had removed the neceſſity of it, at the ſame time that it had deſtroyed the means by which its former credit had been ſupported. Lands, at the cloſe of the war, were not riſing in value—bills on London could not ſo readily be purchaſed, as while the province was dependent on Great Britain—the State was ſplit into parties, one of which attempted to defeat the meaſures moſt popular with the other—and the depreciation of continental bills, with the injuries which it had done to individuals, inſpired a general diſtruſt of all public promiſes.

Notwithſtanding a part of the money was loaned on good landed ſecurity, and the faith of that wealthy State pledged for the redemption of the whole at its nominal value, yet the advantages of ſpecie as a medium of commerce, eſpecially as an article of remittance to London, ſoon made a difference of ten per cent. between the bills of credit and ſpecie. This difference may be conſidered rather as an appreciation of gold and ſilver, than a depreciation of paper; but its effects, in a commercial ſtate, muſt be highly prejudicial. It opens the door to frauds of all kinds, and frauds are uſually practiſed on the honeſt and unſuſpecting, eſpecially upon all claſſes of labourers.

North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia, had recourſe to the ſame wretched expedient to ſupply themſelves with money; not reflecting that induſtry, frugality, and good commercial laws are the only means of turning the balance of trade in favour of a country, and that this balance is the only permanent ſource of ſolid wealth and ready money. But the bills they emitted ſhared a worſe fate than thoſe of Pennſylvania; they expelled almoſt all the circulating caſh from the States; they loſt a great part of their nominal value, they impoveriſhed the merchants, and embarraſſed the planters.

The State of Virginia tolerated a baſe practice among the inhabitants of cutting dollars and ſmaller pieces of ſilver, in order to prevent it from leaving the State. This pernicious practice prevailed alſo in Georgia.*

Maryland eſcaped the calamity of a paper currency. The houſe of delegates brought forward a bill for the emiſſion of bills of credit to a large amount; but the ſenate firmly and ſucceſsfully reſiſted the pernicious ſcheme. The oppoſition between the two houſes was violent and tumultuous; it threatened the State with anarchy; but the queſtion was carried to the people, and the good ſenſe of the ſenate finally prevailed.

New Jerſey is ſituated between two of the largeſt commercial towns in America, and conſequently drained of ſpecie. This State alſo emitted a large ſum in bills of credit, which ſerved to pay the intereſt of the public debt; but the currency depreciated, as in other States.

Rhode Iſland exhibited a melancholy proof of that licentiouſneſs and anarchy which always follows a relaxation of the moral principles. In a rage for ſupplying the State with money, and filling every man's pocket without obliging him to earn it by his diligence, the legiſlature paſſed an act for making one hundred thouſand pounds in bills; a ſum much more than ſufficient for a medium of trade in that State, even without any ſpecie. The merchants in Newport and Providence oppoſed the act with firmneſs; and their oppoſition added freſh vigor to the reſolution of the aſſembly, and induced them to enforce the ſcheme by a legal tender of a moſt extraordinary nature. They

* A dollar was uſually cut in five pieces, and each paſſed by tale for a quarter; ſo that the man who cut it gained a quarter, or rather a fifth.

paſſed an act, ordaining that if any creditor ſhould refuſe to take their bills, for any debt whatever, the debtor might lodge the ſum due, with a juſtice of the peace, who ſhould give notice of it in the public papers; and if the creditor did not appear and receive the money within ſix months from the firſt notice, his debt ſhould be forfeited. This act aſtoniſhed all honeſt men; and even the promoters of paper money-making in other States, and other principles, reprobated this act of Rhode Iſland, as wicked and oppreſſive. But the State was governed by faction. During the cry for paper money, a number of boiſterous, ignorant men were elected into the legiſlature, from the ſmaller towns in the State. Finding themſelves united with a majority in opinion, they formed and executed any plan their inclination ſuggeſted; they oppoſed every meaſure that was agreeable to the mercantile intereſt; they not only made bad laws to ſuit their own wicked purpoſes, but appointed their own corrupt creatures to fill the judicial and executive departments. Their money depreciated ſufficiently to anſwer all their vile purpoſes in the diſcharge of debts—buſineſs almoſt totally ceaſed, all confidence was loſt, the State was thrown into confuſion at home and was execrated abroad.

Maſſachuſetts Bay had the good fortune, amidſt her political calamities, to prevent an emiſſion of bills of credit. New Hampſhire made no paper; but in the diſtreſſes which followed her loſs of buſineſs after the war, the legiſlature made horſes, lumber, and moſt articles of produce, a legal tender in the fulfilment of contracts. It is doubtleſs unjuſt to oblige a creditor to receive any thing for his debt, which he had not in contemplation at the time of the contract. But as the commodities which were to be a tender by law, in New Hampſhire, were of an intrinſic value, bearing ſome proportion to the amount of the debt, the injuſtice of the law was leſs flagrant than that which enforced the tender of paper in Rhode Iſland. Indeed a ſimilar law prevailed for ſome time in Maſſachuſetts; and in Connecticut it is optional with the creditor, either to impriſon the debtor or take land on execution at a price to be fixed by three indifferent freeholders; provided no other means of payment ſhall appear to ſatisfy the demand. It muſt not, however, be omitted, that while the moſt flouriſhing commercial States introduced a paper medium, to the great injury of honeſt men, a bill for an emiſſion of paper in Connecticut, where there is very little ſpecie, could never command more than one eighth of the votes of the legiſlature. The movers of the bill have hardly eſcaped ridicule; ſo generally is the meaſure reprobated as a ſource of frauds and public miſchief.

The legiſlature of New York, a State that had the leaſt neceſſity and apology for making paper money, as her commercial advantages always furniſh her with ſpecie ſufficient for a medium, iſſued a large ſum in bills of credit, which ſupported their value better than the currency of any other State. Still the paper raiſed the value of ſpecie, which is always in demand for exportation, and this difference of exchange between paper and ſpecie ever expoſes commerce to moſt of the inconveniencies reſulting from a depreciated medium.

Such is the hiſtory of paper money thus far; a miſerable ſubſtitute for real coin, in a country where the reins of government are too weak to compel the fulfilment of public engagements, and where all confidence in public faith is totally deſtroyed.

While the States were thus endeavouring to repair the loſs of ſpecie by empty promiſes, and to ſupport their buſineſs by ſhadows, rather than by reality, the Britiſh miniſtry formed ſome commercial regulations that deprived them of the profits of their trade to the Weſt Indies and Great Britain. Heavy duties were laid upon ſuch articles as were remitted to the London merchants for their goods, and ſuch were the duties upon

upon American bottoms, that the States were almoſt wholly deprived of the carrying trade. A prohibition was laid upon the produce of the United States, ſhipped to the Engliſh Weſt India Iſlands in American built veſſels, and in thoſe manned by American ſeamen. Theſe reſtrictions fell heavy upon the eaſtern States, which depended much upon ſhip-building for the ſupport of their trade; and they materially injured the buſineſs of the other States.

Without a union that was able to form and execute a general ſyſtem of commercial regulations, ſome of the States attempted to impoſe reſtraints upon the Britiſh trade that ſhould indemnify the merchant for the loſſes he had ſuffered, or induce the Britiſh miniſtry to enter into a commercial treaty, and relax the rigour of their navigation laws. Theſe meaſures however produced nothing but miſchief. The States did not act in concert, and the reſtraints laid on the trade of one State operated to throw the buſineſs into the hands of its neighbour. Maſſachuſetts, in her zeal to counteract the effect of the Engliſh navigation laws, laid enormous duties upon Britiſh goods imported into that State; but the other States did not adopt a ſimilar meaſure; and the loſs of buſineſs ſoon obliged that State to repeal or ſuſpend the law. Thus when Pennſylvania laid heavy duties on Britiſh goods, Delaware and New Jerſey made a number of free ports to encourage the landing of goods within the limits of thoſe States; and the duties in Pennſylvania ſerved no purpoſe but to create ſmuggling.

Thus divided, the States began to feel their weakneſs: moſt of the legiſlatures had neglected to comply with the requiſitions of Congreſs for furniſhing the federal treaſury; the reſolves of Congreſs were diſregarded; the propoſition for a general impoſt to be laid and collected by Congreſs was negatived, firſt by Rhode Iſland, and afterwards by New York. The Britiſh troops continued, under pretence of a breach of treaty on the part of America, to hold poſſeſſion of the forts on the frontiers of the States. Many of the States individually were infeſted with popular commotions or iniquitous tender laws, while they were oppreſſed with public debts; the certificates or public notes had loſt moſt of their value, and circulated merely as the objects of ſpeculation; Congreſs loſt their reſpectability, and the United States their credit and importance.

In the midſt of theſe calamities, a propoſition was made in 1785, in the Houſe of Delegates in Virginia, to appoint Commiſſioners to meet ſuch as might be appointed in the other States, who ſhould form a ſyſtem of commercial regulations for the United States, and recommend it to the ſeveral legiſlatures for adoption. Commiſſioners were accordingly appointed, and a requeſt was made to the legiſlatures of the other States to accede to the propoſition. Accordingly, ſeveral of the States appointed Commiſſioners, who met at Annapolis in the ſummer of 1786, to conſult what meaſures ſhould be taken to unite the States in ſome general and efficient commercial ſyſtem. But as the States were not all repreſented, and the powers of the Commiſſioners were, in their opinion, too limited to propoſe a ſyſtem of regulations adequate to the purpoſes of government, they agreed to recommend a general convention to be held at Philadelphia the next year, with powers to frame a general plan of government for the United States. This meaſure appeared to the Commiſſioners abſolutely neceſſary. The old confederation was eſſentially defective: it was deſtitute of almoſt every principle neceſſary to give effect to legiſlation.

It was defective in the article of legiſlating over States, inſtead of individuals. All hiſtory teſtifies that recommendations will not operate as laws, and compulſion cannot be exerciſed over States without violence, war, and anarchy. The confederation was alſo deſtitute of a ſanction to its laws. When reſolutions were paſſed in Congreſs,

there was no power to compel obedience by fine, by ſuſpenſion of privileges, or other means: it was alſo deſtitute of a guarantee for the State governments. Had one State been invaded by its neighbour, the Union was not conſtitutionally bound to aſſiſt in repelling the invaſion, and ſupporting the conſtitution of the invaded State. The confederation was further deficient in the principle of apportioning the quotas of money to be furniſhed by each State; in a want of power to form commercial laws, and to raiſe troops for the defence and ſecurity of the Union; in the equal ſuffrage of the States, which placed Rhode Iſland on a footing in Congreſs with Virginia; and to crown all the defects, we may add the want of a judiciary power, to define the laws of the Union, and to reconcile the contradictory deciſions of a number of independent judicatories.

Theſe and many inferior defects were obvious to the Commiſſioners, and therefore they urged a general convention, with powers to form, and offer to the conſideration of the States, a ſyſtem of general government that ſhould be leſs exceptionable: accordingly, in May, 1787, delegates from all the States, except Rhode Iſland, aſſembled at Philadelphia, and choſe General Waſhington for their Preſident. After four months deliberation, in which the claſhing intereſts of the ſeveral States appeared in all their force, the convention agreed to recommend the plan of federal government, which we have already recited.

As ſoon as the plan of the federal conſtitution was ſubmitted to the legiſlatures of the ſeveral States, they proceeded to take meaſures for collecting the ſenſe of the people upon the propriety of adopting it. In the ſmall State of Delaware, a convention was called in November, which, after a few days deliberation, ratified the conſtitution without a diſſenting voice.

In the convention of Pennſylvania, held the ſame month, there was a ſpirited oppoſition to the new form of government. The debates were long and intereſting. Great abilities and firmneſs were diſplayed on both ſides; but, on the 13th of December, the conſtitution was received by two-thirds of the members. The minority were diſſatisfied, and, with an obſtinacy that ill became the repreſentatives of a free people, publiſhed their reaſons of diſſent, which were calculated to inflame a party already violent, and which, in fact, produced ſome diſturbances in the weſtern part of the State.

In New Jerſey, the convention which met in December, were unanimous in adopting the conſtitution; as was likewiſe that of Georgia.

In Connecticut, there was ſome oppoſition; but the conſtitution was, on the 9th of January, 1788, ratified by three-fourths of the votes in convention, and the minority peaceably acquieſced in the deciſion.

In Maſſachuſetts, the oppoſition was large and reſpectable. The convention, conſiſting of more than three hundred delegates, were aſſembled in January, and continued their debates, with great candour and liberality, about five weeks. At length the queſtion was carried for the conſtitution by a ſmall majority; and the minority, with that manly condeſcenſion which becomes great minds, ſubmitted to the meaſure, and united to ſupport the government.

In New Hampſhire, the federal cauſe was for ſome time doubtful. The greateſt number of the delegates in convention were, at firſt, on the ſide of the oppoſition; and ſome, who might have had their objections removed by the diſcuſſion of the ſubject, were inſtructed to reject the conſtitution. Although the inſtructions of conſtituents cannot, on the true principles of repreſentation, be binding upon a deputy, in any legiſlative aſſembly, becauſe his conſtituents are but a *part* of the State, and have

have not heard the arguments and objections of the *whole*; whereas his act is to affect the *whole* State, and therefore is to be directed by the ſenſe or wiſdom of the whole, collected in the legiſlative aſſembly; yet the delegates in the New Hampſhire convention conceived very erroneouſly, that the ſenſe of the freemen in the towns, thoſe little diſtricts, where no act of legiſlation can be performed, impoſed a reſtraint upon their own wills.* An adjournment was therefore moved and carried. This gave the people opportunity to gain a farther knowledge of the merits of the conſtitution; and at the ſecond meeting of the convention it was ratified by a reſpectable majority.

In Maryland, ſeveral men of abilities appeared in the oppoſition, and were unremitted in their endeavours to perſuade the people, that the propoſed plan of government was artfully calculated to deprive them of their deareſt rights; yet in convention it appeared, that five-ſixths of the voices were in favour of it.

In South Carolina, the oppoſition was reſpectable; but two-thirds of the convention appeared to advocate and vote for the conſtitution.

In Virginia, many of the principal characters oppoſed the ratification of the conſtitution with great abilities and induſtry; but, after a full diſcuſſion of the ſubject, a ſmall majority, of a numerous convention, appeared for its adoption.

In New York, two-thirds of the delegates in convention were, at their firſt meeting, determined to reject the conſtitution. Here, therefore, the debates were the moſt intereſting, and the event extremely doubtful. The argument was managed with uncommon addreſs and abilities on both ſides of the queſtion. But during the ſeſſion, the ninth and tenth States had acceded to the propoſed plan, ſo that by the conſtitution, Congreſs were empowered to iſſue an ordinance for organizing the new government. This event placed the oppoſition on new ground; and the expediency of uniting with the other States—the generous motives of conciliating all differences, and the danger of a rejection, influenced a reſpectable number, who were originally oppoſed to the conſtitution, to join the federal intereſt. The conſtitution was accordingly ratified by a ſmall majority; but the ratification was accompanied here, as in Virginia, with a bill of rights, declaratory of the ſenſe of the convention as to certain great principles, and with a catalogue of amendments, which were to be recommended to the conſideration of the new Congreſs, and the ſeveral State Legiſlatures.

North Carolina met in convention in July, to deliberate on the new conſtitution. After a ſhort ſeſſion, they rejected it by a majority of one hundred and ſeventy-ſix againſt ſeventy-ſix. In November, 1789, however, this State again met in convention, and ratified the conſtitution by a large majority.

Rhode Iſland was doomed to be the ſport of a blind and ſingular policy. The legiſlature, in conſiſtency with the meaſures which had been before purſued, did not call a convention to collect the ſenſe of the State upon the propoſed conſtitution; but in an unconſtitutional and abſurd manner, ſubmitted the plan of government to the conſideration of the people. Accordingly, it was brought before town-meetings, and in moſt of them rejected. In ſome of the large towns, particularly in Newport and Providence, the people collected and reſolved with great propriety, that they could not take up the ſubject; and that the propoſition for embracing or rejecting the federal conſtitution could come before no tribunal but that of the State in convention or legiſlature. On the 24th of May, 1790, a convention of this State met at Newport, and on the 29th, adopted the conſtitution by a majority of *two* only.

* This pernicious opinion has prevailed in all the States, and done infinite miſchief.

Vermont, in convention at Bennington, January 10th, 1791, ratified the conſtitution of the United States by a great majority.*

From the moment the proceedings of the general convention at Philadelphia tranſpired, the public mind was exceedingly agitated, and ſuſpended between hope and fear, until nine States had ratified their plan of a federal government. Indeed the anxiety continued until Virginia and New York had acceded to the ſyſtem. But this did not prevent the demonſtrations of their joy on the acceſſion of each State.

On the ratification in Maſſachuſetts, the citizens of Boſton, in the elevation of their joy, formed a proceſſion in honour of the happy event, which was novel, ſplendid, and magnificent. This example was afterwards followed, and in ſome inſtances improved upon, in Baltimore, Charleſton, Philadelphia, Newhaven, Portſmouth, and New York, ſucceſſively. Nothing could equal the beauty and grandeur of theſe exhibitions. A ſhip was mounted upon wheels, and drawn through the ſtreets; mechanics erected ſtages, and exhibited ſpecimens of labour in their ſeveral occupations as they moved along the road; flags with emblems, deſcriptive of all the arts and of the federal union, were invented and diſplayed in honour of the government; multitudes of all ranks in life aſſembled to view the ſplendid ſcenes; while ſobriety, joy, and harmony, marked the brilliant exhibitions, by which the Americans celebrated the eſtabliſhment of their Empire.

On the 3d of March, 1789, the delegates from the eleven States, which at that time had ratified the conſtitution, aſſembled at New York, where a convenient and elegant building had been prepared for their accommodation. On opening and counting the votes for preſident, it was found that GEORGE WASHINGTON was *unanimouſly* elected to that dignified office, and that JOHN ADAMS† was choſen Vice Preſident. The annunciation of the choice of the firſt and ſecond Magiſtrates of the United States occaſioned a general diffuſion of joy among the friends to the Union, and fully evinced that theſe eminent characters were the choice of the people.

On

* The following exhibits at one view the order, time, &c. in which the ſeveral States ratified the Federal Conſtitution:

					Majority.
Delaware,	December	3,	1787,	unanimouſly.	
Pennſylvania,	December	13,		46 to 23	23
New Jerſey,	December	19,		unanimouſly.	
Georgia,	January	2,	1788,	unanimouſly.	
Connecticut,	January	9,		128 to 40	88
Maſſachuſetts,	February	6,		187 to 168	19
Maryland,	April	28,		63 to 12	51
South Carolina,	May	23,		149 to 73	76
New Hampſhire,	June	21,		57 to 46	11
Virginia,	June	25,		89 to 79	10
New York,	July	26,		30 to 25	5
North Carolina,	November	27,	1789,	193 to 75	118
Rhode Iſland,	May	29,	1790,		2
Vermont,	January	10,	1791,	by a great majority.	
Kentucky.					

† Mr. Adams is a deſcendant of one of the firſt families who founded the colony of Maſſachuſetts Bay, in 1630. He was born at Braintree, in Maſſachuſetts, October 19th, 1735.

He was by profeſſion a lawyer, and ſuch were his abilities and integrity, that he attracted the attention, the eſteem, and the confidence of his fellow citizens. Not contented with barely maintaining the rights of individuals, he early ſignalized himſelf in the defence of the rights of his country and of mankind at large, by writing his admirable Diſſertation on the Canon and Feudal Laws; a work well adapted to convince or confound the advocates either for civil or eccleſiaſtical tyranny. It evinced that he had abilities to afford powerful aid in the formation of republics on the genuine principles of juſtice and virtue.

The

On the 30th of April, 1789, GEORGE WASHINGTON was inaugurated PRESIDENT of the United States of America, in the city of New York. The ceremony was performed in the open gallery of Federal Hall, in the view of many thouſand ſpectators. The oath was adminiſtered by Chancellor Livingſton. Several circumſtances concurred to render the ſcene unuſually ſolemn—the preſence of the beloved Father and Deliverer of his country—the impreſſions of gratitude for his paſt ſervices—the vaſt concourſe of ſpectators—the devout fervency with which he repeated the oath, and the reverential

The zeal and firmneſs with which Mr. Adams defended the liberties of his country, did not prevent his acting in the ſervice of her enemies, where he thought they were treated with too much ſeverity. Called upon by his profeſſion, he boldly ſtood forth as the advocate of Capt. Preſton, who had been impriſoned as the murderer of ſome of the citizens of Boſton, on the memorable 5th of March, 1770. His client's cauſe was moſt unpopular. The whole town had been in a ſtate of irritation, on account of the conduct of Governor Hutchinſon, and the troops which were ſtationed in it. Their reſentment now burſt into a flame. But he felt the cauſe to be a juſt one; and the danger of incurring the diſpleaſure of his countrymen could not deter him from undertaking it. He conducted the cauſe with great addreſs by keeping off the trial till the paſſions of the people had time to ſubſide. The trial at length commenced, and laſted ſeveral days, during which he diſplayed the moſt extenſive knowledge of the laws of his country, and of humanity; and at the concluſion he had the ſatisfaction of proving to Great Britain herſelf, that the citizens of Maſſachuſetts would be juſt and humane to their enemies amidſt the groſſeſt inſults and provocations. Capt. Preſton was acquitted. In this moſt delicate and important trial, Mr. Adams manifeſted that firmneſs of mind, that diſintereſted and enlightened patriotiſm, and that love of juſtice and humanity, which have uniformly marked his conduct in all thoſe great departments which he has ſince filled with ſo much ability and dignity.

He was a member of the firſt Congreſs in 1774; and was one of the principal promoters of the famous reſolution of the 4th of July, 1776, which declared the American Colonies FREE, SOVEREIGN, AND INDEPENDENT STATES.

Having been for a conſiderable length of time one of the commiſſioners of the war department, and a principal ſuggeſtor of the terms to be offered to France, for forming a treaty of alliance and commerce, he was ſent to the Court of Verſailles, as one of the miniſters plenipotentiary of the United States, to conſummate that important buſineſs.

On his return from France he was called upon by Maſſachuſetts to aſſiſt in forming a plan of government; and to him this State is chiefly indebted for their preſent excellent conſtitution.

After this important buſineſs was accompliſhed, he returned to Europe, veſted with full powers from Congreſs to aſſiſt at any conference which might be opened for the eſtabliſhment of peace; and he ſoon after received other powers to negociate a loan of money for the uſe of the United States, and to repreſent them as their Miniſter Plenipotentiary to their High Mightineſſes the States General of the United Provinces. Such important truſts ſhew in what high eſtimation he was held by his country, and the able and ſatisfactory manner in which he executed them, proved that their confidence was well placed.

While in Europe, Mr. Adams publiſhed his learned and celebrated work, entitled "A Defence of the Conſtitutions of Government of the United States of America," or more properly ſpeaking, "The Hiſtory of the Principal Republics in the World," in 3 vols. 8vo. printed for J. Stockdale, in which he advocates, as the fundamental principles of a free government—equal repreſentation, of which numbers, or property, or both, ſhould be the rule—a total ſeparation of the executive from the legiſlative power, and of the judicial from both—and a balance in the legiſlature, by three independent equal branches. "If there is one certain truth," ſays he, "to be collected from the hiſtory of all ages, it is this: That the people's rights and liberties, and the democratical mixture in a conſtitution, can never be preſerved without a ſtrong executive, or in other words, without ſeparating the executive power from the legiſlative."

A character who rendered ſuch eminent ſervices to his country, both at home and abroad, in ſeaſons of the greateſt gloomineſs and danger, and who poſſeſſed ſuch an extenſive knowledge of politics and government, did not remain unnoticed by his grateful countrymen. He was called, in 1789, by the choice of his country, to the vice-preſidency of the United States, which office he ſtill retains.

"They who have had an opportunity of knowing his Excellency, Mr. Adams," ſays an European writer, "trace in his features the moſt unequivocal marks of probity and candour. He unites to that gravity, which is ſuitable to the dignity of his ſtation, an affability which prejudices you in his favour. Although of a ſilent turn, as is common to men who engage in important affairs, yet he has a natural eloquence for the diſcuſſion of important ſubjects, and for the recommending and enforcing the meaſures and ſyſtems which are dictated by ſound policy. He has neither the corrupted nor corrupting principles of Lord Cheſterfield, but the plain and virtuous demeanour of Sir William Temple. Like him alſo he is ſimple in negociation, where he finds candour in thoſe who treat with him; otherwiſe he has the ſeverity of a true republican, his high idea of virtue giving him a rigidneſs which makes it difficult for him to accommodate himſelf to thoſe intrigues which European politics have introduced into negociation."

manner

manner in which he bowed to kiſs the ſacred volume—theſe circumſtances, together with that of his being choſen to the moſt dignified office in America, and perhaps in the world, by the unanimous voice of more than three millions of enlightened *freemen*, all conſpired to place this among the moſt auguſt and intereſting ſcenes which have ever been exhibited on this globe.*

Hitherto the deliberations of the legiſlature of the Union have been marked with wiſdom, and the meaſures they have adopted have been productive of great national proſperity. The wiſe appointments to office, which, in general, have been made—the eſtabliſhment of a revenue and judiciary ſyſtem, and of a national bank—the aſſumption of the debts of the individual States, and the encouragement that has been given to manufactures, commerce, literature, and to uſeful inventions, open the faireſt proſpect of the peace, union, and increaſing reſpectability of the American States.

GRAND DIVISIONS OF THE UNITED STATES.

THE AMERICAN REPUBLIC, of which we have given a general account, conſiſts of three grand diviſions, denominated the *Northern*, or more properly *Eaſtern*, *Middle*, and *Southern* States.

The *firſt* diviſion, (the Northern or Eaſtern States) comprehends

VERMONT,
NEW HAMPSHIRE,,
DISTRICT of MAINE, (belonging to Maſſachuſetts)
MASSACHUSETTS,
RHODE ISLAND,
CONNECTICUT.

Theſe are called the New England States, and comprehend that part of America, which, ſince the year 1614, has been known by the name of NEW ENGLAND.

The *ſecond* diviſion (the Middle States) comprehends

NEW YORK,
NEW JERSEY,
PENNYSLVANIA,
DELAWARE,
TERRITORY, N. W. of OHIO.

The *third* diviſion (the Southern States) comprehends

MARYLAND,
VIRGINIA,
KENTUCKY,
NORTH CAROLINA,
TERRITORY S. of OHIO,
SOUTH CAROLINA,
GEORGIA.

Of theſe we ſhall treat in their order.

* "It ſeemed, from the number of witneſſes," ſaid a ſpectator of the ſcene, "to be a ſolemn appeal to heaven and earth at once. Upon the ſubject of this great and good man, I may, perhaps, be an enthuſiaſt; but, I confeſs, I was under an awful and religious perſuaſion, that the gracious Ruler of the Univerſe was looking down at that moment with peculiar complacency on an act, which, to a part of his creatures, was ſo very important. Under this impreſſion, when the Chancellor pronounced, in a very feeling manner, "LONG LIVE GEORGE WASHINGTON," my ſenſibility was wound up to ſuch a pitch, that I could do no more than wave my hat with the reſt, without the power of joining in the repeated acclamations which rent the air."


EXPLANATION
The boundary between the United States & British Dominions
Divisional lines between each State
Towns
Forts
Indian Towns & Villages
COUNTIES IN N. YORK
1 New York County
2 West Chester County
3 Dutchess County
4 Orange County
5 Columbia County
Long Island
6 Kings County
7 Queens County
8 Suffolk County
9 Richmond County
COUNTIES IN MASSACHUSETS
A Barnstable County
B Plymouth County
C Bristol County
D Worcester County
E Hampshire County
100
95
90
85
50
45
40
15
10
HUDSONS
NEW
SOUTH
WALES
BRITI
NATION of the BEAR
WEST
TERRI
TORY
RIVER
ILLINOIS COUNTRY
LAKE SUPERIOR
LAKE MICHIGAN
LAKE HURON
LAKE ERIE
ALGONQUINS
MIAMIS
VIRGI
KENTUCKY
LOUISIANA
Lake of the Woods
Rain Lake
Red R and L.
Head of Origan
Little Rain L
Grand Portage
Marshes & Lakes
River St. Louis
Lake River
Little R.
Cold R
Marshy R
Little Lake R.
Goose Lake River
Capers R
FALLS of ST. ANTHONY
R. St. Pierre
LAKE PEPIN
Rum Riv.
Wakondeeble Lake
R. St. Croix
The Fork
Chippaway R
Marble Hills L and R
Bark R
Yellow R
Turkey R
Mine R
Gr. Mockeeth R
R. la Roche
R. du Morins
Racconda R
R. a Fabiane
Lauffisome R
Cahahah River
Struwbury Riv.
West Bay
12 Apostles
Philipeaux I.
Copper Mines
Noqueis R.
Vermillion R.
Rutius R
Ouiconsting R.
Lead Mine
Fox R
Winnebago L
Milwaukie R
R. au Cedar
Crocodile R
Green Bay
Long R.
Chegomogan R
White Fish Pt
Pouchimouni R.
St. Joseph
Michilimackinao Fs & St
Detroit
Pt au Rauson
St. Clair
Thunder B
Pt Marque R
St Nicholas R
Blanches R
Matticon R
La Grand R
R. au Raison
R. a la Barbue
Maraine R
Noire R
St Joseph R
Gr. Limonone R
Theakiki R
Mc Juliet
Dupage L
Rain R
Vermillion R
Gross Meadow
Illinois River
Kaskaskis R
Mine R
Iz Michilimackinac R
Great Miama R
Iz Miami
Portage R
Hurone R
Cedar Pt
Sandusky
Grand R
Yellow Cr
Albana R
Henly Factory
Abibi R & L
Lake Alemipigon
Alemipiskis R
Perray R
Meshipicoton
Elbow I
Mirapau I
I. Royal
Pontchartrain L.
Round I
Chegomogan R
Michilimackinac
Manitoualian I.
St. Georges L.
Thessalon I.
Noquet R
Pt au Sable
Bois Blanc
Pt au Pin
Pt au Sapin
Pt au Tour
Bois Chase R
Matchedash B
Nottawasaga B
Saguinam B
Long R
Fox R
Winnebago L
Milwaukie R
Crocodile R
R. au Cedar
Green Bay
Pt Marque R
St Nichlas R
Blanches R
Matticon R
La Grand R
R. au Raison
R. a la Barbue
Maraine R
Noire R
St Joseph R
Detroit
Pt au Rauson
St Clair
Lake Erie
Le Beauf Fs
Sandusky
Cedar Pt
Portage R
Hurone R
Grand R
Yellow Cr
Great Beach
Long Beach
Gr. Limonone R
Theakiki R
Mc Juliet
Dupage L
Rain R
Vermillion R
Gross Meadow
Miamis Ft and R
Miamis
Illinois River
Kaskaskis R
Iz Michilimackinac R
Great Miama R
Iz Miami
Ra Maris
Post Vincent
Gen! Clarks Grant 1500 Acres
Donation Lands from the Commonwealth of Virginia
Scioto R
Hockhocking R
OHIO COMPANY
Chicasaw R
Rapids
Louisville
Kentucky R
Great Kanawa R
Guyandal R
Green R
Cumberland R
Cherokee River
Missouri R
Marimeg R
St Genevieve
St Louis
Cahokia
NEW JERSEY COMPANY
St Phillips
Ft Chartres
Kaskaskias Village
ILLINOIS COMPANY
WABASH COMPANY
ARMY LANDS
New Madrid
Mississippi R
Lake Michigan
Lake Huron
Lake Erie
Lake Ontario
Lake Superior
Lake Pepin
Lake Alemipigon
Lake of the Woods
Rain Lake
Lake Pontchartrain
Lake Winnebago
Lake Michilimackinac
Lake Michigan
Lake Huron
Lake Erie
Lake Ontario
Lake Superior
Lake Pepin
Lake Alemipigon
Lake of the Woods
Rain Lake
Lake Pontchartrain
Lake Winnebago
Lake Michilimackinac

A MAP of the NORTHERN AND MIDDLE STATES:

Comprehending the Western Territory *and the* British Dominions

IN

NORTH AMERICA.

from the best Authorities.

Engraved for Morses *Geography Published by* J. Stockdale *Jan*^{y} *25, 1792.*

Engraved by G. Allen Sadlers Wells Row, Islington

EXPLANATION

- The boundary between the United States & British Dominions
- Divisional lines between each State
- Towns
- Forts
- Indian Towns & Villages

COUNTIES IN N. YORK

1. New York County
2. West Chester County
3. Dutchess County
4. Orange County
5. Columbia County

Long Island

6. Kings County
7. Queens County
8. Suffolk County
9. Richmond County

COUNTIES IN MASSACHUSETS

A. Barnstable County
B. Plymouth County
C. Bristol County
D. Worcester County
E. Hampshire County

HUDSONS BAY
C. Henrietta
C. Jones
Port Mourning
Bear Is
The Cubus
NEW SOUTH WALES
Equan R & B
JAMES BAY
Ospinugan Ri
Viners
Coan R
Stude R
Peters R
Abiscoutchistian R.
Carlton I
C. Comfort
Rupert Ft
Ruport R
St Anns Lake
The Lands height
Albana R
Henly Factory
Abitibi R & L
Lake Alemipigon
BRITISH DOMINIONS
Perray R
Lake of the Woods
NATION of the BEAR
Rain Lake
Red R and L
Head of Origan
Little Rain L
Alemipiscaki R
Meshipicoten
Grand Portage
Elbow I
Mirapan I
Lake River
Little R.
Cold R
Valley of Marshes & Lakes
River St Louis
I. Royal
LAKE Pontchartrain L.
Marshy R
Strawbury Riv.
West Bay
12 Apostles
Philipeaux I.
Round I
Chegomogan
ALGONQUINS
Little Lake R.
Goose Lake River
Carvers R
Rum Riv.
Wakomtable cave
Copper Mines
White Fish Pt
Pouchitaoui R.
Noqueis B.
Michilimakinao Fts & St
Thessalon I.
Manjatawalian I.
IROQUOES
Vermillion R.
R St Croix
The Fork
Rutlus R
Thunder B
Green Bay
Long Pt
Pt Marquet R
St Nichlas R
Blanches R
Matticon R
La Grand R
R au Raisen
R a la Barbue
Murgame R
Neire R
St Joseph R
Winnebago L
Fox R
Crocadile R
Milowakee R
B au Cedar
Bl Riv Chase R
LAKE ONTARIO
Niagara Falls 140 Ft
Detroit
L St Clair
P au Raison
LAKE ERIE
Sandusky
Long Pt
Le Beauf Ft
Chenesee
Chenesee Castle
Tyoga R
Allegany
Buffalos Swamp
Licking Cr
Tobys Cr
Venango Ft
Grand R
Portage R
Huroys R
Yellow Cr
Beaver Cr
Wioming
PENNSYLVANIA
Penns Cr
Sunbury
Juniata R
Ft Pitt
Carlisle
Bedford
Reading
Lancaster
Susquehanna R
PHILADELPHIA
Baltimore
ANNAPOLIS
Frederick T.
George T.
Patapsco R
Potomack R
MARYLAND
Lake Timiscaming
Full of Lakes
Outemais Riv.
Nipisin Lake
St Lion L
Promenac
Thames R
Lake Huron
Lake Ontario
Lake Erie
Pennsylvania
Virginia
Maryland
Kentucky
Ohio River
Louisiana
Mississippi
Missouri R
Illinois R
Illinois Country
Indian Territory
Lake Michigan
Lake Superior
Lake Pepin
Falls of St Anthony
Mississippi River
Lead Mine
Mine R
Turkey R
Yellow R
Quiconstino R.
Bark R
Marble Hills Land R
Chippaway R
Ra la Roche
Ra la Moine
Ra Fabiane
Ra Maris
Ra Jacques
Ra Moingona
Ra Jacques
Ra Moingona
Ra Colorado
Ra Grand
Ra Mississippi
Ra Missouri
Ra Illinois
Ra Wabash
Ra Ohio
Ra Kentucky
Ra Tennessee
Ra Cumberland
Ra Green
Ra Gauyandot
Ra Great Kanawa
Ra Potomack
Ra Rappahannock
Ra York
Ra James
Ra Roanoke
Ra Pedee
Ra Santee
Ra Savannah
Ra Alatamaha
Ra St Johns
Ra St Mary
Ra Apalachicola
Ra Mobile
Ra Pascagoula
Ra Pearl
Ra Red
Ra Arkansaw



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NEW ENGLAND; *or* NORTHERN *or* EASTERN STATES.

SITUATION AND BOUNDARIES.

NEW ENGLAND lies between 41 and 46 degrees N. Lat. and between 1 degree 30 minutes, and 8 degrees E. Lon. from Philadelphia; and is bounded north by Lower Canada; east, by the province of New Brunſwick, and the Atlantic Ocean; ſouth, by the ſame ocean, and Long Iſland Sound; weſt, by the State of New York. It lies in the form of a quarter of a circle. Its weſt line, beginning at the mouth of Byram river, which empties into Long Iſland Sound at the ſouth-weſt corner of Connecticut, Lat. 41 degrees, runs a little eaſt of north, until it ſtrikes the 45th degree of Latitude, and then curves to the eaſtward almoſt to the Gulf of St. Lawrence.

CLIMATE AND DISEASE.] New England has a very healthful climate, as is evinced by the longevity of the inhabitants. It is eſtimated that about one in ſeven of the inhabitants live to the age of ſeventy years; and about one in thirteen or fourteen to eighty years and upwards.

North-weſt, weſt, and ſouth-weſt winds are the moſt prevalent. Eaſt and north-eaſt winds, which are unelaſtic and diſagreeable, are frequent at certain ſeaſons of the year, particularly in April and May, on the ſea coaſts. The weather is leſs variable than in the middle and eſpecially the ſouthern States, and more ſo than in Canada. The extremes of heat and cold, according to Fahrenheit's thermometer, are from 20° below, to 100° above 0. The medium is from 48° to 50°. The inhabitants of New England, on account of the dryneſs of their atmoſphere, can endure, without inconvenience, a greater degree of heat than the inhabitants of a moiſter climate. It is ſuppoſed by ſome philoſophers, that the difference of moiſture in the atmoſphere in Pennſylvania and New England is ſuch, as that a perſon might bear at leaſt ten degrees of heat more in the latter than in the former.

The quantity of rain which falls in England annually, is computed to be 24 inches; in France 18 inches, and in New England from 48 to 50 inches; and yet in New England they ſuffer more from drought than in either of the forementioned countries, although they have more than double the quantity of rain. Theſe facts evince the remarkable dryneſs of the atmoſphere in this eaſtern diviſion of the United States, and in part account for its ſingular healthfulneſs. Winter commonly commences, in its ſeverity, about the middle of December—ſometimes earlier, and ſometimes not till Chriſtmas. Cattle are fed or houſed, in the northern parts of New England, from about the 20th of November to the 20th of May; in the ſouthern parts not quite ſo long. There have been froſts in almoſt every month in the year, though not in the ſame year; but not very injurious.

The diſeaſes moſt prevalent in New England are the following, viz.

Alvine fluxes,	Inflammatory	Fevers
St. Anthony's Fire,	Slow nervous, and	
Aſthma,	Mixed	
Atrophy,	Pulmonary Conſumption,	
Catarrh,	Quinſy,	
Colic,	Rheumatiſm.	

 Theſe

Theſe diſorders, of which the pulmonary conſumption is much the moſt deſtructive, are commonly the effect of imprudent expoſures to cold and rainy weather, evening air, and the wearing of damp linen; or from frequent exceſſes in the uſe of ſtrong liquors, eſpecially of freſh diſtilled rum, which in too many inſtances prove the bane of morals, and the ruin of families.

The ſmall pox, which is a ſpecific, infectious diſeaſe, is not allowed at preſent to be communicated by inoculation, except in hoſpitals erected for the purpoſe in bye places, and in caſes where there is a probability of a general ſpread of the infection in a town. Nor is this diſeaſe permitted to be communicated generally by inoculation, in any of the United States, except New York, New Jerſey, Pennſylvania, Delaware, and South Carolina.

In populous towns, the prevalent diſeaſes are more numerous and complicated, owing to want of freſh air and exerciſe, and to luxurious and faſhionable living.

A late writer * has obſerved that "in other countries, men are divided according to their wealth or indigence, into three claſſes; the opulent, the middling, and the poor; the idleneſs, luxuries, and debaucheries of the firſt, and the miſery and too frequent intemperance of the laſt, deſtroy the greater proportion of theſe two. The intermediate claſs is below thoſe indulgencies which prove fatal to the rich, and above thoſe ſufferings to which the unfortunate poor fall victims: this is therefore the happieſt diviſion of the three. Of the rich and poor, the American Republic furniſhes a much ſmaller proportion than any other diſtrict of the known world. In Connecticut particularly, the diſtribution of wealth and its concomitants is more equal than elſewhere, and therefore, as far as exceſs or want of wealth may prove deſtructive or ſalutary to life, the inhabitants of this State may plead exemption from diſeaſes." What this writer ſays of Connecticut in particular, will, with very few exceptions, apply to New England at large.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, MOUNTAINS, &c.] New England is a high, hilly, and in ſome parts a mountainous country, formed by nature to be inhabited by a hardy race of free, independent republicans. The mountains are comparatively ſmall, running nearly north and ſouth in ridges parallel to each other. Between theſe ridges flow the great rivers in majeſtic meanders, receiving the innumerable rivulets and larger ſtreams which proceed from the mountains on each ſide. To a ſpectator on the top of a neighbouring mountain, the vales between the ridges, while in a ſtate of nature, exhibit a romantic appearance. They ſeem an ocean of woods, ſwelled and depreſſed in its ſurface like that of the great ocean itſelf. A richer, though leſs romantic view is preſented, when the valleys, by induſtrious huſbandmen, have been cleared of their natural growth; and the fruit of their labour appears in loaded orchards, extenſive meadows, covered with large herds of ſheep and neat cattle, and rich fields of flax, corn, and the various kind of grain.

Theſe valleys are of various breadths, from two to twenty miles; and by the annual inundations of the rivers and ſmall ſtreams which flow through them, there is frequently an accumulation of rich, fat ſoil, left upon their ſurface when the waters retire.

There are three principal ranges of mountains, paſſing nearly from ſouth-weſt to north-eaſt, through New England. Theſe conſiſt of a multitude of parallel ridges, each having many ſpurs, deviating from the courſe of the general range; which ſpurs are again broken into irregular, hilly land. The main ridges commence in high bluff

* Dr. Foulke, in a diſcourſe which he lately read before the American Philoſophical Society.

heads

heads near the ſea coaſt; and ſometimes by a gradual aſcent in the interior part of the country. One of the main ranges runs between Connecticut and Hudſon's rivers. This range branches, and bounds the vales through which flows the Houſatonick river.

In Lyme, on the eaſt ſide of the mouth of Connecticut river, another range of mountains commences, forming the eaſtern boundary of Connecticut vale. This range runs northerly, at the diſtance, generally, of about ten or twelve miles eaſt from the river, and paſſes through Maſſachuſetts, from where the range takes the name of Chicabee Mountains; thence croſſing into New Hampſhire, at the diſtance of about twenty miles from the Maſſachuſetts line, it runs up into a very high peak, called *Monadnock*, which terminates this ridge of the range. A weſtern ridge continues, and in about latitude 43° 20′, runs up into *Sunapee* mountains. About 50 miles further, in the ſame ridge, is *Mooſe-helock* mountain.

A third range begins near Stonington in Connecticut. It takes its courſe north-eaſterly, and is ſometimes broken and diſcontinued; it then riſes again, and ranges in the ſame direction into New Hampſhire.

Theſe ranges of mountains are full of ſprings of water, that give riſe to numberleſs ſtreams of various ſizes, which, interlocking each other in every direction, and falling over the rocks in romantic caſcades, flow meandering into the rivers below. No country on the globe is better watered than New England.

On the ſea coaſt the land is low, and in many parts level and ſandy. In the valleys, between the fore-mentioned ranges of mountains, the land is generally broken, and in many places rocky, but of a ſtrong rich ſoil, capable of being cultivated to good advantage, which alſo is the caſe with many ſpots even on the tops of the mountains.

Rivers.] The principal rivers in New England are Penobſcot, Kennebeck, Androſcoign or Ameriſcoggin, Saco, (pronounced *Sawco*) Merrimack, Connecticut, Houſatonick, and Onion rivers, beſides many ſmaller ones.

Flowering Shrubs and Plants.] Dr. Cutler has furniſhed the following catalogue of flowering ſhrubs and plants in New England, which, from the attention he has paid to natural hiſtory, we have reaſon to rely upon as accurate.

Blue Flag (Iris virginica)—Globe Flower (Cephalanthus occidentalis)—Pigeonberry (Ciſſus ſicyoides)—Cornel (Cornus Canadenſis)—American Honeyſuckle (Azalea viſcoſa)—American Tea (Ceanothus Americanus)—Cherry Honeyſuckle (Lonicera diervilla)—Great Convolvulus (Convolvulus arvenſis)—Stag's horn Sumach (Rhus typhinum)—Mealtree (Viburnum lantana)—White flowered Elder (Sambucus nigra)—Red berried Elder (Sambucus Canadenſis.)—Meadow Blue-bells (Gentiana ciliata)—Lilies, ſeveral ſpecies (Lilium)—Bethlem Star (Ornithogulum luteum)—American Senna (Rhodora Canadenſis)—Great Laurel (Kalmia latifolia)—Dwarf Laurel (Kalmia anguſtifolia)—White Pepper Buſh (Andromeda arborea)—Bog Evergreen (Andromeda calyculata)—Sweet Pepper Buſh (Clethra alnifolia)—Mountain Laurel, or Sorbus-tree (Sorbus aucupora?)—Meadow Sweet (Spiræa ſalicifolia)—Queen of the Meadows (Spiræa tormentoſa)—Service Tree (Meſpilus Canadenſis)—Wild Roſe (Roſa Carolina)—Superb Raſpberry (Rubus odoratus)—Baneberry (Actea ſpicata)—Side-ſaddle Flower (Sarracena purpurea)—Red Columbine (Aquilegia Canadenſis)—Anemone, ſeveral ſpecies (Anemone hepatica, ſylveſtris et nemoroſa)—Traveller's Joy (Clematis Virginica)—Dragon's Head (Dracocephalum Virginicum)—Snap Dragon (Antirrhinum Canadenſis)—American Cardamine (Cardamine Virginica) Lupin (Lupinus anguſtifolia)—Locuſt (Robinia pſeud-acacia)—Beach Pea (Piſum maritimum)—Pied Pea (Piſum ochrus)—Wood Pea (Orobus ſylvaticus)—Variegated Pea (Lathyrus heterophyllus)—Meadow Sunflower (Ageratum ciliare)—American Amaranthus (Gnaphalium

helian themifolium)—New England After (After Nova Anglicum)—Smooth-leaved Golden-rod (Solidago altiſſima)—New England Sunflower (Helianthus divaricatus)—American Pride (Lobelia cardinalis)—Ladies Plume (Orchis pycodes)—Ladies Slipper (Cypripedium calceolus)—Blue-eye (Siſyrinchium Bermudiauna)—Swamp Willow, or Dog-wood (Salix cinerea?)—Red-flowered Maple (Acerubrum).

PRODUCTIONS FROM CULTURE.] New England, generally ſpeaking, is better adapted for grazing than for grain, though a ſufficient quantity of the latter is raiſed for home conſumption, if we except wheat, which is imported in conſiderable quantities from the middle and ſouthern States. Indian corn, rye, oats, barley, buck wheat, flax and hemp, generally ſucceed very well. Wheat is cultivated to advantage in many parts of the interior country, but on the ſea coaſt it is ſubject to blaſt. This has been attributed to various cauſes, but the true one probably is, the ſudden, cold, eaſterly winds, after a hot day, which cauſe a ſtagnation and extravaſation of the juices of the ſtalk. Apples are common, and in general plenty in New England, and cyder conſtitutes the principal drink of the inhabitants. Peaches do not thrive as well as formerly. The other common fruits are more or leſs cultivated in different parts.

New England is a fine grazing country; the valleys, between the hills, are generally interſected with brooks of water, the banks of which are lined with a tract of rich meadow or intervale land. The high and rocky ground is, in many parts, covered with clover, and generally affords the fineſt of paſture. It will not be a matter of wonder, therefore, that New England boaſts of raiſing ſome of the fineſt cattle in the world; nor will ſhe be envied, when the labour of raiſing them is taken into view. Two months of the hotteſt ſeaſon in the year, the farmers are employed in procuring food for their cattle, and the cold winter is ſpent in dealing it out to them. The pleaſure and profit of doing this is, however, a ſatisfying compenſation to the honeſt and induſtrious farmer. Butter and cheeſe are made for exportation. Conſiderable attention has lately been paid to the raiſing of ſheep.

POPULATION, CHARACTER, AND DIVERSIONS.] New England is the moſt populous part of the United States. It contains, according to the cenſus of 1790, 1,009,522 ſouls. The great body of theſe are landholders and cultivators of the ſoil. As they poſſeſs, in fee ſimple, the farms which they cultivate, they are naturally all attached to their country; the cultivation of the ſoil makes them robuſt and healthy, and enables them to defend it.

New England may with propriety be called a nurſery of men, whence are annually tranſplanted, into other parts of the United States, thouſands of its natives. Vaſt numbers of them, ſince the war, have emigrated into the northern parts of New York, into Kentucky, and the Weſtern Territory, and into Georgia; and ſome are ſcattered into every State, and every town of note in the Union.

The inhabitants of New England are almoſt univerſally of Engliſh deſcent; and it is owing to this circumſtance, and to the great and general attention that has been paid to education, that the Engliſh language has been preſerved among them ſo free of corruption.

The New Englanders are generally tall, ſtout, and well built. Their education, laws, and ſituation, ſerve to inſpire them with high notions of liberty. Their jealouſy is awakened at the firſt motion towards an invaſion of their rights. They are indeed often jealous to exceſs; a circumſtance which is a fruitful ſource of imaginary grievances, and of groundleſs ſuſpicions and complaints againſt government. But theſe ebullitions of jealouſy, though cenſurable, and productive of ſome political evils, ſhew that the eſſence of true liberty exiſts in New England; for jealouſy is a guardian of liberty,

liberty, and a characteriſtic of free republicans. A chief foundation of liberty and equality in the New England States is a law bywhich inteſtate eſtates deſcend to all the children, or other heirs, in equal proportions, except to the eldeſt ſon, who has two ſhares. In 1789 Maſſachuſetts aboliſhed this exception. In conſequence of theſe laws, the people of New England enjoy an equality of condition unknown in any other part of the world: and it is in this way that the people have preſerved that happy mediocrity among themſelves, which, by inducing economy and induſtry, removes from them temptations to luxury, and forms them to habits of ſobriety and temperance. At the ſame time, their induſtry and frugality exempt them from want, and from the neceſſity of ſubmitting to any encroachments on their liberties.

In New England, learning is more generally diffuſed among all ranks of people than in any other part of the globe; ariſing from the excellent eſtabliſhment of ſchools in almoſt every townſhip.

In theſe ſchools, which are generally ſupported by a public tax, and under the direction of a ſchool committee, are taught the elements of reading, writing, and arithmetic, and in the more wealthy towns, they are beginning to introduce the higher branches of grammar, geography, &c.

A very valuable ſource of information to the people is the newſpapers, of which not leſs than thirty thouſand are printed every week in New England, and circulate in almoſt every town and village in the country.*

A perſon of mature age, who cannot both read and write, is rarely to be found. By means of this general eſtabliſhment of ſchools, the extenſive circulation of Newſpapers, and the conſequent ſpread of learning, every townſhip throughout the country is furniſhed with men capable of conducting the affairs of their town with judgement and diſcretion. Theſe men are the channels of political information to the lower claſs of people; if ſuch a claſs may be ſaid to exiſt in New England, where every man thinks himſelf at leaſt as good as his neighbour, and believes that all mankind are, or ought to be, equal. The people, from their childhood, form habits of canvaſſing public affairs, and commence politicians. This naturally leads them to be very inquiſitive. It is with knowledge as with riches, the more a man has, the more he wiſhes to obtain; his deſire has no bound. This deſire after knowledge, in a greater or leſs degree, prevails throughout all claſſes of people in New England; and from their various modes of expreſſing it, ſome of which are blunt and familiar, bordering on impertinence, ſtrangers have been induced to mention *impertinent inquiſitiveneſs* as a diſtinguiſhing characteriſtic of New England people. But this is true only with regard to that claſs of people who have confined themſelves to domeſtic life, and have not had opportunity of mingling with the world; and ſuch people are not peculiar to New England; they compoſe a great part of the citizens of every ſtate and country.

Before the late war, which introduced into New England a flood of corruptions, with many improvements, the ſabbath was obſerved with great ſtrictneſs; no unneceſſary travelling, no ſecular buſineſs, no viſiting, no diverſions were permitted on that ſacred day. They conſidered it as conſecrated to divine worſhip, and were generally punctual and ſerious in their attendance upon it. Their laws were ſtrict in guarding the ſabbath againſt every innovation. The ſuppoſed ſeverity with which theſe laws were compoſed and executed, together with ſome other traits in their religious charac-

* According to an accurate eſtimate lately made, it appears that no leſs than 77,000, newſpapers are printed weekly, in the American States, which, in a year, would amount to upwards of four millions, and at 4 cents each would make 160,000 dollars.

ter,

ter, have acquired for the New Englanders, the name of a ſuperſtitious, biggotted people. But ſuperſtition and bigotry are ſo indefinite in their ſignifications, and ſo variouſly applied by perſons of different principles and educations, that it is not eaſy to determine whether they ever deſerved that character. Leaving every perſon to enjoy his own opinion in regard to this matter, we will only obſerve, that, ſince the war, a catholic tolerant ſpirit, occaſioned by a more enlarged intercourſe with mankind, has greatly increaſed, and is becoming univerſal; and if they do not break the proper bound, and liberalize away all true religion, of which there is very great danger, they will counteract that ſtrong propenſity in human nature, which leads men to vibrate from one extreme to its oppoſite.

There is one diſtinguiſhing characteriſtic in the religious character of this people, which we muſt not omit to mention; and that is, the cuſtom of annually celebrating Faſts and Thankſgivings. In the ſpring, the governors of the ſeveral New England States, except Rhode Iſland, iſſue their proclamations, appointing a day to be religiouſly obſerved in faſting, humiliation, and prayer throughout their reſpective States, in which the predominating vices, that particularly call for humiliation, are enumerated. In autumn, after harveſt, that gladſome era in the huſbandman's life, the governors again iſſue their proclamations, appointing a day of public thankſgiving, enumerating the public bleſſings received in the courſe of the foregoing year.

This pious cuſtom originated with their venerable anceſtors, the firſt ſettlers of New England; and has been handed down as ſacred, through the ſucceſſive generations of their poſterity. A cuſtom ſo rational, and ſo happily calculated to cheriſh in the minds of the people a ſenſe of their dependence on the GREAT BENEFACTOR of the world for all their bleſſings, it is hoped will ever be ſacredly preſerved.

The people of New England generally obtain their eſtates by hard and perſevering labour: they of conſequence know their value, and ſpend with frugality. Yet in no country do the indigent and unfortunate fare better. Their laws oblige every town to provide a competent maintenance for their poor, and the neceſſitous ſtranger is protected, and relieved by their humane inſtitutions. It may in truth be ſaid, that in no part of the world are the people happier, better furniſhed with the neceſſaries and conveniencies of life, or more independent, than the farmers in New England. As the great body of the people are hardy, independent freeholders, their manners are, as they ought to be, congenial to their employment, plain, ſimple, and unpoliſhed. Strangers are received and entertained among them with a great deal of artleſs ſincerity, and friendly, unformal hoſpitality. Their children, thoſe imitative creatures, to whoſe education particular attention is paid, early imbibe the manners and habits of thoſe around them; and the ſtranger, with pleaſure, notices the honeſt and decent reſpect that is paid him by the children as he paſſes through the country.

As the people, by repreſentation, make their own laws and appoint their own officers, they cannot be oppreſſed; and living under governments which have few lucrative places, they have few motives to bribery, corrupt canvaſſings, or intrigue. Real abilities and a moral character unblemiſhed are the qualifications requiſite in the view of moſt people, for officers of public truſt. The expreſſion of a wiſh to be promoted, is, in ſome parts of New England, the direct way to be diſappointed.

The inhabitants, in ſome parts of New England, are generally fond of the arts and ſciences, and have cultivated them with great ſucceſs. Their colleges have flouriſhed. The illuſtrious characters they have produced, who have diſtinguiſhed themſelves in politics, law, divinity, the mathematics, and philoſophy, natural and civil hiſtory, and in the fine arts, particularly poetry, evince the truth of theſe obſervations.

Many

Many of the women in New England are handſome. They generally have fair, freſh, and healthful countenances, mingled with much female ſoftneſs and delicacy. Thoſe who have had the advantages of a good education (and they are numerous) are genteel, eaſy, and agreeable in their manners, and are ſprightly and ſenſible in converſation. They are early taught to manage domeſtic concerns with neatneſs and economy. Ladies of the firſt rank and fortune make it a part of their daily buſineſs to ſuperintend the affairs of the family. Employment at the needle, in cookery, and at the ſpinning wheel, with them is honourable. Idleneſs, even in thoſe of independent fortunes, is univerſally diſreputable. The women in country towns, manufacture the greateſt part of the cloathing of their families. Their linen and woollen cloths are ſtrong and decent. Their butter and cheeſe is not inferior to any in the world.

Dancing is the principal and favourite amuſement in New England; and of this the young people of both ſexes are extremely fond. Gaming is practiſed by none but thoſe who cannot, or rather will not, find a reputable employment. The gameſter, the horſe jockey, and the knave, are equally deſpiſed, and their company is avoided by all who would ſuſtain fair and irreproachable characters.

The athletic and healthy diverſions of cricket, foot ball, quoits, wreſtling, jumping, hopping, foot races, and priſon baſs, are univerſally practiſed in the country, and ſome of them in the moſt populous places, and by people of almoſt all ranks.

History.] New England owes its firſt ſettlement to religious perſecution. Soon after the commencement of the reformation * in England, which was not until the year 1534, the Proteſtants were divided into two parties, one the followers of Luther, and the other of Calvin. The former had choſen gradually, and almoſt imperceptibly, to recede from the church of Rome; while the latter, more zealous, and convinced of the importance of a thorough reformation, and at the ſame time poſſeſſing much firmneſs and high notions of religious liberty, was for effecting a thorough change at once. Their conſequent endeavours to expunge from the church all the inventions which had been brought into it ſince the days of the Apoſtles, and to introduce the "Scripture purity," derived for them the name of Puritans. From theſe the inhabitants of New England deſcended.

The firſt company that came to New England planted themſelves at Plymouth. They were a part of the Rev. Mr. Robinſon's congregation, which for 12 years before had lived in Holland, for the ſake of enjoying liberty of conſcience. They came over in the year 1620.

* The reformation was begun by Martin Luther, a native of Saxony, born in the year 1483. He was educated in the Roman Catholic religion, and was an Auguſtin Friar, when, in 1517, having written ninety-five Theſes againſt the Pope's indulgencies, he exhibited them to public view on the church door at Wirtenburg, in Saxony, and thus began the reformation in Germany. In 1528, the reformed religion was introduced into Switzerland by Zuinglius, Oecolampadius, and others.

The year following, the Diet of the German Empire aſſembled at Spire, and iſſued a decree againſt the reformation. Againſt this decree, the Elector of Saxony, George, Marquis of Brandenburg, Erneſt, and Francis, Duke of Lunenburg, the Landgrave of Heſs, and the Count of Anhalt, who were joined by ſeveral of the cities, publicly read their *Proteſt*, and in this way, acquired for themſelves and their ſucceſſors down to the preſent time, the name of *Proteſtants*.

Calvin, another celebrated reformer, was born at Noyon, in France, in the year 1509. He improved upon Luther's plan—expunged many of the Romiſh ceremonies which he had indulged—entertained different ideas concerning ſome of the great doctrines of Chriſtianity, and ſet the Proteſtants at a greater remove from the Roman Catholic religion. The followers of Luther have been diſtinguiſhed by the name of *Lutherans*; and the followers of Calvin by the name of *Calviniſts*.

Such was the rapid growth of the Proteſtant intereſt, that in 1563, only 46 years after the commencement of the reformation by Luther, there were in France 2150 aſſemblies of Proteſtants.

It

It was their intention to have ſettled at the mouth of Hudſon's river; but the Dutch, intending to plant a colony there of their own, privately hired the maſter of the ſhip to contrive delays in England, and then to conduct them to theſe northern coaſts, and there, under pretence of ſhoals and winter, to diſcourage them from venturing to the place of deſtination. This is confidently aſſerted by the hiſtorians of that time. Although Cape Cod harbour, in which they firſt anchored, was good, the country around was ſandy and barren. Theſe were diſcouraging circumſtances; but the ſeaſon being far advanced, they prudently determined to make the beſt of their preſent ſituation.

As they were not within the limits of their patent, and conſequently not under the juriſdiction of the Virginia company, they concluded it neceſſary to eſtabliſh a ſeparate government for themſelves. Accordingly, before they landed, having on their knees devoutly given thanks to God for their ſafe arrival, they formed themſelves into a body politic, by a *ſolemn contract*,* to which they all ſubſcribed, thereby making it the baſis of their government. They choſe Mr. John Carver, a gentleman of piety and approved abilities, to be their governor for the firſt year. This was on the 11th of November, 1620.

Their next object was to fix on a convenient place for ſettlement. In doing this they were obliged to encounter numerous difficulties, and to ſuffer incredible hardſhips. Many of them were ſick in conſequence of the fatigues of a long voyage: Their proviſions were bad—the ſeaſon was uncommonly cold—the Indians, though afterwards friendly, were now hoſtile—and they were unacquainted with the coaſt. Theſe difficulties they ſurmounted, and on the 31ſt of December they were all ſafely landed at a place, which, in grateful commemoration of Plymouth in England, the town which they laſt left in their native land, they called *Plymouth*. This is the firſt Engliſh town that was ſettled in New England.

In ſome of their excurſions in ſearch of a ſuitable place for ſettlement, they found buried ſeveral baſkets of Indian corn, to the amount of ten buſhels, which fortunately ſerved them for planting the next ſpring, and perhaps was the means of preſerving them from periſhing with hunger. They made diligent inquiry for the owners, whom they found, and afterwards paid the full value of the corn.

Before the end of November, Suſanna, the Wife of William White, was delivered of a ſon, whom they called *Peregrine*. He is ſuppoſed to have been the firſt child of European extract born in New England.

The whole company that landed conſiſted of but 101 ſouls. Their ſituation was diſtreſſing, and their proſpect truly diſmal and diſcouraging. Their neareſt neighbours, except the natives, were a French ſettlement at Port Royal, and one of the Engliſh at

* The following is an authentic copy of this contract—"In the name of God, Amen: We whoſe Names are under-written, the Loyal Subjects of our dread Sovereign Lord, King James, by the grace of God, of Great Britain, France and Ireland, King, Defender of the Faith, &c.

"Having undertaken, for the Glory of God, and the advancement of the Chriſtian Faith and honour of our King and country, a Voyage to Plant the firſt Colony in the Northern parts of Virginia; Do, by theſe Preſents, ſolemnly and mutually, in the Preſence of God, and one of another, Covenant and Combine ourſelves together unto a Civil Body Politic, for our better Ordering and Preſervation, and Furtherance of the Ends aforeſaid; and by virtue hereof to enact, conſtitute, and frame ſuch juſt and equal Laws, Ordinances, Acts, Conſtitutions, and Offices from Time to Time, as ſhall be thought moſt meet and convenient for the General Good of the Colony; unto which we Promiſe all due Submiſſion and Obedience: In witneſs whereof we have hereunder ſubſcribed our names at Cape Cod, the 11th of November, in the Year of the Reign of our Sovereign Lord King James, of England, France, and Ireland, the Eighteenth, and of Scotland the Fifty-fourth, Anno Domini, 1620."

This inſtrument was ſigned by 24 heads of families, with the number in their reſpective families annexed, and 17 ſingle men, making in the whole 101 ſouls.

Virginia. The neareſt of theſe was five hundred miles from them, and utterly incapable of affording them relief in a time of famine or danger. Wherever they turned their eyes, diſtreſs was before them. Perſecuted for their religion in their native land—grieved for the profanation of the holy Sabbath, and other licentiouſneſs in Holland—fatigued by their long and boiſterous voyage—diſappointed through the treachery of their commander, of their expected country—forced on a dangerous and unknown ſhore, in the advance of a cold winter—ſurrounded with hoſtile barbarians, without any hope of human ſuccour—denied the aid or favour of the court of England—without a patent—without a public promiſe of a peaceable enjoyment of their religious liberties—worn out with toil and ſufferings—without convenient ſhelter from the rigours of the weather.—Such were the proſpects, and ſuch the ſituation of the pious ſolitary Chriſtians; and to add to their diſtreſſes, a general and very mortal ſickneſs prevailed among them, which ſwept off forty-ſix of their number before the opening of the next ſpring. To ſupport them under theſe trials, they had need of all the aids and comforts which Chriſtianity affords; and theſe were ſufficient. The free and unmoleſted enjoyment of their religion reconciled them to their humble and lonely ſituation—They bore their hardſhips with unexampled patience, and perſevered in their pilgrimage of almoſt unparalleled trials, with ſuch reſignation and calmneſs, as gave proof of great piety and unconquerable virtue.

On the 3d of November, 1620, King James ſigned a patent, incorporating the duke of Lenox, the Marquiſſes of Buckingham and Hamilton, the Earls of Arundel and Warwick, Sir Francis Gorges, with thirty-four others, and their ſucceſſors, ſtiling them, 'The council eſtabliſhed in Plymouth, in the county of Devon, for the planting, ruling, ordering, and governing of New England in America.' To this council he granted all that part of America which lies between the 40th and 48th degrees of north latitude. This patent is the great *civil baſis* of all the grants and patents by which New England was afterwards divided.

The Plymouth council retained the power veſted in them by the crown, until the year 1635, when they reſigned their charter. Previous to this, however, the council had made ſeveral grants of land to adventurers, who propoſed to ſettle in New England.—They granted New Hampſhire to Captain John Maſon in 1621—the Province of Main, to Sir R. Gorges in 1622, and Maſſachuſetts Bay to Sir Henry Roſwell and five others, in 1627.

As early as March, 1621, Maſaſſoit,* one of the moſt powerful Sagamores of the neighbouring Indians, with ſixty attendants, made a viſit to the Plymouth ſettlers, and entered into a formal and very friendly treaty with them, wherein they agreed to avoid injuries on both ſides—to puniſh offenders—to reſtore ſtolen goods—to aſſiſt each other in all juſtifiable wars—to promote peace among their neighbours, &c.—Maſaſſoit and his ſucceſſors, for fifty years, inviolably obſerved this treaty. The Engliſh are much indebted to him for his friendſhip; and his memory will ever be reſpected in New England.

The Narraganſets, diſliking the conduct of Maſaſſoit, declared war againſt him, which occaſioned much confuſion and fighting among the Indians. The Plymouth colony interpoſed in favour of Maſaſſoit, their good ally, and terminated the diſpute, to the terror of their enemies. Even *Canonicus* himſelf, the terrific Sachem of the Narraganſets, ſued for peace.

* The ſeat of Maſaſſoit was at Pakanokit, on Namaſket river, which empties into Narraganſet Bay.

The prudent, friendly, and upright conduct of the Plymouth colony towards their neighbours, the Indians, ſecured their friendſhip and alliance. On the 13th of September 1621, no leſs than nine Sachems declared allegiance to King James; and Maſaſſoit, with many of his Sub-Sachems, who lived around the bays of Patuxent and Maſſachuſetts, ſubſcribed a writing, acknowledging the King of England their maſter. Theſe tranſactions are ſo many proofs of the peaceful and benevolent diſpoſition of the Plymouth ſettlers; for had they been otherwiſe diſpoſed, they never could have introduced and maintained a friendly intercourſe with the natives.

On the 10th of September this year, the king granted to Sir William Alexander a patent of all the tract of country bounded by a line drawn from Cape Sables to the Bay of St. Mary; thence to the river St. Croix; thence north to Canada river; down the river to Gachepe; thence ſouth-eaſt to Cape Breton iſland and Cape Breton; thence round to Cape Sables; with all ſeas and iſlands within ſix leagues of the weſtern and eaſtern parts, and within forty leagues ſouthward of Cape Breton and Cape Sables; to be called *Nova Scotia.*

The firſt *duel* in New England was fought with ſword and dagger between two ſervants: neither of them was killed, but both were wounded. For this diſgraceful offence, they were formally tried before the whole company, and ſentenced to have 'their heads and feet tied together, and ſo to be twenty-four hours without meat or drink.'

This year, 1622, died *Squanto,* the friend of the Engliſh, who merits to have his name perpetuated in hiſtory. Squanto was one of the twenty Indians whom Hunt perfidiouſly carried to Spain;* whence he came to London, and afterwards to his native country with the Plymouth colony. Forgetting the perfidy of thoſe who made him a captive, he became a warm friend to the Engliſh, and continued ſo to the day of his death. A few days before he died, he deſired the Governor to pray that he might go to the Engliſhman's God in heaven.

In March, 1624, Mr. Winſlow, agent for the colony, arrived, and, together with a good ſupply of cloathing, brought a *bull and three heifers,* which were the firſt cattle of the kind in this part of America. From theſe, and others that were afterwards brought over from England, ſprang the preſent multitude of cattle in the northern States. None of the domeſtic animals were found in America by the firſt European ſettlers.

At the cloſe of this year, 1624, the plantation at New Plymouth conſiſted of 180 perſons, who lived in thirty-two dwelling houſes. Their ſtock was a few cattle and goats, and a plenty of ſwine and poultry. Their town was impaled about half a mile in compaſs. On a high mount in the town they had erected a fort of wood, lime, and ſtone, and a handſome watch tower.

The year 1625 is diſtinguiſhed by the death of the Rev. Mr. Robinſon: he died at Leyden, in March, in the 50th year of his age. He was truly a great and good man, and lived in great love and harmony with his people: he was held in high eſtimation by all his acquaintance, for his learning, piety, moderation, and excellent accompliſhments. His death was lamented as a public loſs, and felt by none more than by his beloved and far diſtant people at Plymouth. His ſon Iſaac came over to Plymouth, where he lived to the age of 90 years. His deſcendants ſtill live in Barnſtable county, in Maſſachuſetts.

After the death of Mr. Robinſon, the remaining part of his congregation were extremely deſirous of coming over to their friends at Plymouth, and meaſures were taken for the purpoſe; yet it was not until the year 1629 that they effected their deſign.

* See page 92.

From

From this time New England began to flouriſh. Sir Henry Roſwell and others had received a patent of Maſſachuſetts from the council of New England. Settlements were ſucceſsfully enterprized at Salem, Charleſton, Boſton, Dorcheſter, and other places, ſo that in forty years from this time, 1629, 120 towns were ſettled, and forty churches were gathered.

The Laudian perſecution was conducted with unrelenting ſeverity; and while it cauſed the deſtruction of thouſands in England, proved to be a principle of life and vigour to the infant ſettlements in America. Several men of eminence in England, who were the friends and protectors of the Puritans, entertained a deſign of ſettling in New England, if they ſhould fail in the meaſures they were purſuing for the eſtabliſhment of the liberty, and the reformation of the religion of their own country. They ſolicited and obtained grants in New England, and were at great pains in ſettling them. Among theſe patentees were the Lords Brook, Say and Seal, the Pelhams, the Hampdens, and the Pyms; names which afterwards appeared with great eclat. Sir Matthew Boynton, Sir William Conſtable, Sir Arthur Haſlerig, and Oliver Cromwell, were actually upon the point of embarking for New England, when Archbiſhop Laud, unwilling that ſo many objects of his hatred ſhould be removed out of the reach of his power, applied for, and obtained, an order from the court to put a ſtop to theſe tranſportations. However, he was not able to prevail ſo far as to hinder New England from receiving vaſt additions, as well of the clergy, who were ſilenced and deprived of their living for non-conformity, as of the laity who adhered to their opinions.

The colony of Plymouth remained without a charter, until they were incorporated with Maſſachuſetts in 1691 or 1692. Notwithſtanding this, it was a government *de facto*, and conſidered as ſuch by King Charles in his letters and orders, which were ſent them at various times previous to their incorporation with Maſſachuſetts.

It was in the ſpring of 1630, that the GREAT CONSPIRACY was entered into by the Indians in all parts, from the Narraganſets round to the eaſtward, to extirpate the Engliſh. The colony at Plymouth was the principal object of this conſpiracy: they well knew that if they could effect the deſtruction of Plymouth, the infant ſettlement at Maſſachuſetts would fall an eaſy ſacrifice. They laid their plan with much art. Under colour of having ſome diverſion at Plymouth, they intended to have fallen upon the inhabitants, and thus to have effected their deſign. But their plot was diſcloſed to the people at Charleſton, by John Sagamore, an Indian, who had always been a great friend to the Engliſh. This treacherous deſign of the Indians alarmed the Engliſh, and induced them to erect forts and maintain guards, to prevent any ſuch fatal ſurprize in future. Theſe preparations, and the firing of the *great guns*, ſo terrified the Indians, that they diſperſed, relinquiſhed their deſign, and declared themſelves the friends of the Engliſh.

Such was the vaſt increaſe of inhabitants in New England by natural population, and particularly by emigrations from Great Britain, that in a few years, beſides the ſettlements in Plymouth and Maſſachuſetts, very flouriſhing colonies were planted in Rhode Iſland, Connecticut, New Haven and New Hampſhire. The dangers to which theſe colonies were expoſed from the ſurrounding Indians, as well as from the Dutch, who, although very friendly to the infant colony at Plymouth, were now likely to prove troubleſome neighbours, firſt induced them to think of an alliance and confederacy for their mutual defence. Accordingly in 1643, the four colonies of Plymouth, Maſſachuſetts, Connecticut, and New Haven, agreed upon articles of confederation, whereby a congreſs was formed, conſiſting of two commiſſioners from each colony, who were choſen annually, and when met, were conſidered as the repreſentatives

ſentatives of "The United Colonies of New England." The powers delegated to the commiſſioners were much the ſame as thoſe veſted in Congreſs by the articles of confederation, agreed upon by the United States in 1778. The colony of Rhode Iſland would gladly have joined in this confederacy, but Maſſachuſetts, for particular reaſons, refuſed to admit their commiſſioners. This union ſubſiſted, with ſome few alterations, until the year 1686, when all the charters, except that of Connecticut, were, in effect, vacated by a commiſſion from James II.

The reader will obtain the beſt knowledge of the hiſtory of New England, by conſulting Hutchinſon's Hiſtory of Maſſachuſetts—Hazard's Hiſtorical Collections, 4to. 2 vols. the 2d vol. not yet publiſhed, but ready for the preſs—Belknap's Hiſtory of New Hampſhire—The firſt letter in Dr. Gordon's Hiſtory of the American Revolution—Governor Winthrop's Journal—Chalmer's Political Annals—and Gookins' Hiſtorical Collections of the Indians in New England, publiſhed in Boſton by the Hiſtorical Society, in the American Apollo, 1792.

VERMONT.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.
Length 150, Breadth 70 } between { 42° 44′ and 45° N. Lat. / 1° 35′ and 3° 30′ E. Long. from Phil.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED north, by Lower Canada; eaſt, by Connecticut River, which divides it from New Hampſhire; ſouth, by Maſſachuſetts; weſt, by New York.

DIVISIONS.] Vermont is naturally divided by the Green Mountain, which runs from ſouth to north, and divides the State nearly in the middle. Its civil diviſions are as follows:

	Counties.	*Towns.*		*Counties.*	*Towns.*
W. of the Moun.	BENNINGTON,	BENNINGTON,	E. of the Moun.	ORANGE,	NEWBURY,
	RUTLAND,	RUTLAND,		WINDSOR,	WINDSOR,
	ADDISON,	ADDISON,		WINDHAM,	NEWFANE,
	CHITTENDON,	COLCHESTER,			PUTNEY.

Theſe counties are divided into upwards of 200 townſhips, which are generally ſix miles ſquare. In every townſhip is a reſerve of two rights of land, of 350 acres each, one to be appropriated for the ſupport of public ſchools; the other to be given in fee to the firſt miniſter who ſettles in the townſhip. A part of the townſhips were granted by the governor of New Hampſhire, and the other part by that of Vermont. In thoſe townſhips granted by the former, a right of land is reſerved for the ſupport of the goſpel in foreign parts; in thoſe granted by the latter, a college right, and a right for the ſupport of county grammar ſchools, are reſerved. In theſe reſervations, liberal proviſion is made for the ſupport of the goſpel, and for the promotion of common and collegiate education.

RIVERS.] The principal rivers in this State are, Michiſcoui, Lamoille, Onion, and Otter Creek rivers, which run from eaſt to weſt into Lake Champlain; Weſt, Sexton's, Black, Waterquechee, White, Ompompanooſuck, Weld's, Wait's, Paſſumſick, and

ſeveral

ſeveral ſmaller rivers, which run from weſt to eaſt, into Connecticut river. Over the river Lamoille is a natural ſtone bridge ſeven or eight rods in length. Otter Creek is navigable for boats 50 miles: its banks are excellent land, being annually overflowed and enriched. White river takes its name from the peculiar whiteneſs of its water, cauſed by the clear white ſtones and gravel which conſtitute the bed of this river quite to its ſource. This peculiarity deceives people in regard to its depth. It riſes in the center of the State, flows through a rich tract of country free from ſwamps, and empties into the Connecticut four miles below Dartmouth College, and is from 100 to 150 yards wide, ſome diſtance from its mouth. Ompompanooſuck is a ſhort, furious river, not more than 40 or 50 yards wide, emptying into the Connecticut at Norwich. Weld's is alſo a ſhort and rapid river, 40 yards acroſs. Paſſumſick is 100 yards wide, and noted for the quantity and quality of the ſalmon it produces. On this river, which is ſettled 20 miles up, are ſome of the beſt townſhips in the State.

Lakes and Springs.] Memphremagog is the largeſt lake in this State. It is the reſervoir of three conſiderable ſtreams, Black, Barton, and Clyde rivers. One of theſe riſes in Willoughby Lake, and forms a communication between that and lake St. Peter's, in the river St. Lawrence. Iſſuing from Willoughby's Lake, it empties into Memphremagog, and thence, by the name of St. Francis, empties into the St. Peter. This river is not all the way navigable; otherwiſe it would afford a communication of very great importance to the northern part of this State, as the ſettlers might tranſport their produce with great eaſe to Montreal or Quebec. Willoughby's Lake furniſhes fiſh reſembling baſs, of an excellent flavour, weighing from 10 to 30 pounds. They form a moſt delicious feaſt for the new ſettlers: people travel 20 miles to this lake to procure a winter's ſtock of this fiſh. Lake Bombazon, in the county of Rutland, gives riſe to a branch of Poultney River, on which iron works have been erected in the townſhip of Fair Haven.

In ſome low lands, over againſt the great Ox Bow, a remarkable ſpring was diſcovered, about 20 years ſince, which dries up once in two or three years, and burſts out in another place. It has a ſtrong ſmell of ſulphur, and throws up continually a peculiar kind of white ſand. A thick yellow ſcum riſes upon the water when ſettled. Ponds, and other collections of water in this State, are remarkably clear and tranſparent, and afford abundance of trout and perch.

Mountains.] The principal mountain in this State is the one we have already mentioned, which divides the State nearly in the center, between Connecticut River and Lake Champlain. The aſcent from the eaſt to the top of this mountain is much eaſier than from the weſt, till you get to Onion River, where the mountain terminates. The height of land is generally from 20 to 30 miles from the river, and about the ſame diſtance from the New York line. The natural growth upon this mountain is hemlock, pine, ſpruce, and other evergreens; hence it has always a green appearance, and on this account has obtained the deſcriptive name of *Ver Mons, Green Mountain.* On ſome high parts of this mountain ſnow lies till May, and ſometimes till June. This chain of mountains paſſes through Maſſachuſetts and Connecticut, and terminates in New Haven.

The other noted mountain is Aſchutney, bordering on Connecticut River, in the townſhips of Windſor and Weathersfield, and Upper Great Monadnock, quite in the N. E. corner of the State.

It is remarkable, that the hills and mountains are generally covered on the eaſt ſides with what is called hard wood, ſuch as birch, beech, maple, aſh, elm, and butternut; the weſt ſide is generally covered with evergreens.

Climate.

CLIMATE.] During the winter ſeaſon, which commonly laſts from the beginning of November to the middle of April, the inhabitants enjoy a ſerene ſky, and a keen cold air. Snow begins to fall, commonly, by the firſt of November; but the permanent ſnows do not fall till about the 10th of December, which prevent the ground freezing to any conſiderable depth. In April the ſnow is gradually diſſolved by the warm influences of the ſun, which moiſtens and enriches the earth, and vegetation advances with ſurpriſing rapidity.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, SOIL, PRODUCTIONS, &c.] This State, generally ſpeaking, is hilly but not rocky. Weſt of the mountain, from the county of Rutland northward to the Canada line, is a flat country well adapted for tillage. The State at large is well watered, and affords the beſt of paſturage for cattle. Some of the fineſt beef cattle in the world are driven from this State. Horſes alſo are raiſed for exportation. The natural growth upon the rivers, is white pines of ſeveral kinds, intermingled with low intervales of beech, elm, and white oak. Back from the rivers, the land is thickly timbered with birch, ſugar maple, aſh, butternut, and white oak of an excellent quality. The ſoil is natural for wheat, rye, barley, oats, flax, hemp, &c. Indian corn, back from the river, is frequently injured by the froſt; but on the river it is raiſed in as great perfection as in any part of New England, owing in a great meaſure to the fogs ariſing from the river, which either prevent or extract the froſt. Theſe fogs begin as ſoon as the corn is in danger from froſts, and laſt till cold weather commences. Fruit trees, in the northern counties, do not proſper.

TRADE AND MANUFACTURES.] The inhabitants of this State trade principally with Boſton, New York, and Hartford. The articles of export are pot and pearl aſhes, chiefly beef, horſes, grain, ſome butter and cheeſe, lumber, &c. The inhabitants generally manufacture their own clothing, in the family way. Grain has been raiſed in ſuch plenty within a few years paſt, that the inhabitants have been induced to attempt the manufacture of corn ſpirits. For this purpoſe ſix or ſeven ſtills have already been erected, which yield a ſufficient ſupply for the people, and a profit to the owners. Vaſt quantities of pot and pearl aſhes are made in every part of the State. But one of the moſt important manufactures in this State is that of maple ſugar. It has been eſtimated by a competent judge, that the average quantity made for every family back of Connecticut River, is 200lbs. a year. One man, with but ordinary advantages, in one month, made 550lbs. of a quality equal to imported brown ſugar. In two towns, in Orange county, containing no more than 40 families, 13,000lbs. of ſugar were made in the year 1791. The probability is, that in a few years maple ſugar will become an article of export. In ſome parts of the State, the inhabitants are beginning to line the roads with maple trees; and it would certainly be a wiſe meaſure if this practice ſhould become general throughout the States. Orchards of theſe trees, planted on ſloping hills, ſo as to render it eaſy to collect the juice, might be attended with peculiar advantages to the owners.

POPULATION, RELIGION, AND CHARACTER.] In 1790, according to the cenſus then taken, this ſtate contained 85,539 inhabitants, conſiſting chiefly of emigrants from Connecticut and Maſſachuſetts, and their deſcendants. Two townſhips in Orange county are ſettled principally by Scotch people. The body of the people are Congregationaliſts. The other denominations are Preſbyterians, Baptiſts, and Epiſcopalians. This State is rapidly peopling. Five years ago, the townſhip of Danville, in the county of Orange, was a wilderneſs, without ſo much as a ſingle family. Now they have two conſiderable companies of militia; beſides a company of light infantry, dreſſed in uniform.

The

The inhabitants of this State are an aſſemblage of people from various places, of different ſentiments, manners, and habits. They have not lived together long enough to aſſimilate and form a general character. Aſſemble together in imagination, a number individuals of different nations—conſider them as living together amicably, and aſſiſting each other through the toils and difficulties of life; and yet rigorouſly oppoſed in particular religious and political tenets; jealous of their rulers, and tenacious of their liberties--diſpoſitions which originate naturally from the dread of experienced oppreſſion, and the habit of living under a free government—and you have a pretty juſt idea of the character of the people of Vermont. Indolence is never a characteriſtical feature of the ſettlers of a new country. Emigrants in general are active and induſtrious. The oppoſite characters have neither ſpirit nor inclination to quit their native ſpot. The inference is, that Vermont is peopled with an active, induſtrious, hardy, frugal race; as is really the caſe. And as it is a maxim that the inhabitants of all new countries grow virtuous before they degenerate, it will moſt probably be ſo in Vermont.

Military Strength.] In 1788, there were upwards of 17,000 men upon the militia rolls of this State. Theſe conſiſted of two diviſions, one on the weſt, the other on the eaſt ſide of the mountain. In theſe two diviſions were 7 brigades, conſiſting of 22 regiments. The bravery of the Vermonteers, or Green Mountain-boys, is proverbial.

Literature and Improvements.] Much cannot be ſaid in favour of the preſent ſtate of literature in this State; but their proſpects in this regard are good. In every charter of a town, as we have mentioned, proviſion is made for ſchools, by reſerving a certain quantity of land ſolely for their ſupport. The aſſembly of this State, in their October ſeſſion in 1791, paſſed an act for the eſtabliſhment of a college in the town of Burlington, on Lake Champlain, on the ſouth ſide of Onion river, and appointed ten Truſtees. General Ira Allen, one of the Truſtees, on certain conditions, offers lands, &c. to the amount of 4000l. towards this eſtabliſhment.

The expediency of opening a communication between the waters of Lake Champlain and Hudſon's River; and of rendering the navigation of Connecticut River more eaſy and advantageous, has been diſcuſſed by the legiſlature of this State; and meaſures have been adopted to effect the latter, by incorporating a company for the purpoſe of locking Bellows' falls, who are to complete the work within four years from the paſſing of the act, and to receive a toll for all boats that paſs; the toll to be a ſubject of regulation. The works are already begun, and when completed will be of great advantage to the State, by facilitating the exportation of their produce. The other propoſed canal between Lake Champlain and Hudſon's River would alſo be important, but it is doubtful whether it will, at preſent, be accompliſhed.

Chief Towns.] In a new and interior country, large, populous towns are not to be expected. Bennington, ſituated near the ſouth-weſt corner of the State, is one of the largeſt. It contains about 2400 inhabitants, a number of handſome houſes, a congregational church, a court houſe and gaol. A famous battle was fought in or near this town, during the late war, in 1777, between Brigadier-general Starke, at the head of 800 undiſciplined militia, and a detachment of General Burgoyne's army, commanded by Colonel Baum. In this action and the one that ſucceeded it in the ſame place, and on the ſame day, between a reinforcement of the Britiſh, under Colonel Breymen, and General Starke, who was reinforced by Colonel Warner, with a continental regiment, were taken, 4 braſs field pieces, and other military ſtores, and 700 priſoners. The overthrow of theſe detachments was the firſt link in a grand chain of cauſes, which finally proved the ruin of the royal army. This is one of the oldeſt

towns in the State, being firſt ſettled about the year 1764, and is a thriving town, and has been, till lately, the ſeat of government.

Windſor and Rutland, by a late act of the legiſlature, are alternately to be the ſeat of government for 8 years. The former is ſituated on Connecticut River, and contains about 1600 inhabitants; the latter lies upon Otter Creek, and contains upwards of 1400 inhabitants. Both are flouriſhing towns. Guilford, Brattleborough, Putney, Weſtminſter, Weathersfield, Hartland, Norwich, and Newbury, are conſiderable towns, lying from ſouth to north, on Connecticut River. Newbury is the ſhire town of Orange county, which comprehends about three eighths of the whole State, and contains about 900 inhabitants.* It has a court houſe, and a very elegant meeting houſe for congregationaliſts, with a ſteeple, the firſt erected in the State. The celebrated Coos meadows or intervales commence about 9 miles below this town. Newbury court houſe ſtands on the high lands back from the river, and commands a fine view of what is called the great *Ox Bow*, which is formed by a curious bend in the river. It is one of the moſt beautiful and fertile meadows in New England. The circumference of this bow is about 4½ miles; its greateſt depth is ſeven-eighths of a mile, containing about 450 acres. At the ſeaſon when nature is dreſſed in her green attire, a view of this meadow from the high lands is truly luxuriant.

Shaftſbury, Pownal, Mancheſter, Clarendon, Poultney, Pawlet, Danby and Charlotte, are conſiderable and flouriſhing towns, weſt of the mountain. In the town of Orwell is Mount Independence, at the ſouthern extremity of Lake Champlain, oppoſite to which is Ticonderoga, in the State of New York.

Curiosities.] There is a very remarkable ledge of rocks in the town of Bradford, in the county of Orange. It lies on the weſt bank of Connecticut River, and is as much as 200 feet high. It appears to hang over and threaten the traveller as he paſſes. The ſpace between this ledge and the river is ſcarcely wide enough for a road.†

In the townſhip of Tinmouth, on the ſide of a ſmall hill, is a very curious cave. The chaſm at its entrance is about four feet in circumference. Entering this you deſcend 104 feet, and then opens a ſpacious room, 20 feet in breadth, and 100 feet in length. The angle of deſcent is about 45 degrees. The roof of this cavern is of rock, through which the water is continually percolating. The ſtalactites which hang from the roof appear like icicles on the eves of houſes, and are continually increaſing in number and magnitude. The bottom and ſides are daily incruſting with ſpar and other mineral ſubſtances. On the ſides of this ſubterraneous hall are tables, chairs, benches, &c. which appear to have been artificially carved. This richly ornamented room, when illuminated with the candles of the guides, has an enchanting effect upon the eye of the ſpectator. If we might be indulged in aſſigning the general cauſe of theſe aſtoniſhing appearances, we ſhall conclude from the various circumſtances accompanying them, that they ariſe from water filtrating ſlowly through the incumbent

* General Bayley and Col. Thomas Johnſon, enterprized the firſt ſettlements into this part of the country, about the year 1762. At this period there was no road nor human inhabitant for 70 miles down the river, nor for as many miles eaſtward. It is now thickly inhabited by thriving farmers.

† Though out of place, the information not being received early enough to be inſerted under its proper head, I cannot refrain from communicating the following curious and uſeful information.

The river St. Lawrence, at Montreal, is about 3 miles wide. There is an iſland near the middle of the river, oppoſite the city, at the lower end of which is a mill, with 8 pair of ſtones, all kept in motion at the ſame time, with one wheel. The works are ſaid to have coſt 12,000l. ſterling. A large mound of ſtone, &c. built out into the river, ſtops a ſufficiency of water to keep the mill in perpetual motion. And what is very curious, at the end of this mound or dam, veſſels paſs againſt the ſtream, while the mill is in motion. Perhaps there is not another mill of the kind in the world.

ſtrata;

ſtrata; and taking up in its paſſage a variety of mineral ſubſtances, and becoming thus ſaturated with metallic particles, gradually exſuding on the ſurface of the caverns and fiſſures, in a quieſcent ſtate, the aqueous particles evaporate, and leave the mineral ſubſtances to unite according to their affinities.

At the end of this cave is a circular hole, 15 feet deep, apparently hewn out in a conical form, enlarging gradually as you deſcend, in the form of a ſugar loaf. At the bottom is a ſpring of freſh water in continual motion, like the boiling of a pot. Its depth has never been ſounded.

CONSTITUTION.] The inhabitants of Vermont, by their repreſentatives in convention, at Windſor, on the 25th of December, 1777, declared that the territory called Vermont was, and of right ought to be, a free and independent State; and for the purpoſe of maintaining regular government in the ſame, they made a ſolemn declaration of their rights, and ratified a conſtitution, of which the following is an abſtract:

Their declaration, which makes a part of their conſtitution, aſſerts that all men are born equally free—with equal rights, and ought to enjoy liberty of conſcience—freedom of the preſs—trial by jury—power to form new States in vacant countries, and to regulate their own internal police—that all elections ought to be free—that all power is originally in the people—that government ought to be inſtituted for the common benefit of the community—and that the community have a right to reform or aboliſh government—that every member of ſociety hath a right to protection of life, liberty, and property—and in return is bound to contribute his proportion of the expenſe of that protection, and yield his perſonal ſervice when neceſſary—that he ſhall not be obliged to give evidence againſt himſelf—that the people have a right to bear arms—but no ſtanding armies ſhall be maintained in time of peace—that the people have a right to hold themſelves, their houſes, papers, and poſſeſſions, free from ſearch or ſeizure—and therefore warrants without oaths firſt made, affording ſufficient foundation for them, are contrary to that right, and ought not to be granted—that no perſon ſhall be liable to be tranſported out of this State for trial for any offence committed within this State, &c.

By the frame of government, the ſupreme legiſlative power is veſted in a houſe of repreſentatives of the freemen of the State of Vermont, to be choſen annually by the freemen on the firſt Tueſday in September, and to meet the ſecond Thurſday of the ſucceeding October—This body is veſted with all the powers neceſſary for the legiſlature of a free ſtate—Two thirds of the whole number of repreſentatives elected make a quorum.

Each inhabited town throughout the State has a right to ſend one repreſentative to the aſſembly.

The ſupreme executive power is veſted in a governor, lieutenant-governor, and twelve counſellors, to be choſen annually in the ſame manner, and veſted with the ſame powers as in Connecticut.

Every perſon of the age of 21 years, who had reſided in the State one whole year next before the election of repreſentatives, and is of a quiet, peaceable behaviour, and will bind himſelf by his oath, to do what he ſhall in conſcience judge to be moſt conducive to the beſt good of the State, ſhall be intitled to all the privileges of a freeman of this State.

Each member of the Houſe of Repreſentatives, before he takes his ſeat, muſt declare his belief in one God—in future rewards and puniſhments, and in the divinity of the ſcriptures of the Old and New Teſtament, and muſt profeſs the proteſtant religion.

Courts of juſtice are to be eſtabliſhed in every county throughout the State.

The ſupreme court, and the ſeveral courts of common pleas of this State, beſides the powers uſually exerciſed by ſuch courts, have the powers of a court of chancery, ſo far as relates to perpetuating teſtimony, obtaining evidence from places not within the State, and the care of the perſons and eſtates of thoſe who are *non compotes mentis*, &c. All proſecutions are to be commenced in the name and by the authority of the freemen of the State of Vermont. The legiſlature are to regulate entails ſo as to prevent perpetuities.

All field and ſtaff officers, and commiſſioned officers of the army, and all general officers of the militia, ſhall be choſen by the general aſſembly, and be commiſſioned by the governor.

Every ſeventh year, beginning with the year 1785, thirteen perſons (none of whom are to be of the council or aſſembly) ſhall be choſen by the freemen, and be called "the council of cenſors," whoſe duty it ſhall be to inquire whether the conſtitution has been preſerved inviolate in every part—whether the legiſlative and executive powers have been properly exerciſed—taxes juſtly laid and collected—the public monies rightly diſpoſed of—and the laws duly executed.— For theſe purpoſes they ſhall have power to ſend for perſons, papers, &c.—to paſs public cenſures—to order impeachments, and to recommend the repeal of all laws enacted contrary to the principles of the conſtitution. They are to be veſted with theſe powers for one year only, after the day of their election.

The council of cenſors, when neceſſary, may call a convention, to meet two years after their ſitting—to alter the conſtitution—the propoſed alterations to be publiſhed at leaſt ſix months before the election of delegates to ſuch convention.

HISTORY.] The tract of country called *Vermont*, before the late war, was claimed both by New York and New Hampſhire; and theſe interfering claims have been the occaſion of much warm altercation, the particulars of which it would be neither entertaining nor uſeful to detail. They were not finally adjuſted till ſince the peace. When hoſtilities commenced between Great Britain and her colonies, the inhabitants of this diſtrict, conſidering themſelves as in a ſtate of nature, and not within the juriſdiction either of New York or New Hampſhire, aſſociated and formed for themſelves the conſtitution, of which we have given an abſtract. Under this conſtitution they have continued to exerciſe all the powers of an independent ſtate, and have been proſpered. On the fourth of March, 1791, agreeably to act of Congreſs of December 6th, 1790, this State became one of the United States, and conſtitutes the fourteenth, and not the leaſt reſpectable pillar in the American Union.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.
Length 168 } between { 42° 41′ and 45° 11′ N. Latitude.
Breadth 60 } between { 4° 30′ and 6° 17′ E. Longitude.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED north, by the Province of Lower Canada; eaſt, by the Diſtrict of Main and the Atlantic Ocean; ſouth, by Maſſachuſetts; weſt, by the weſtern bank of Connecticut River; containing 9,491 ſquare

ſquare miles, or 6,074,240 acres; of which at leaſt 100,000 acres are water. The ſhape of New Hampſhire reſembles an open fan; Connecticut river makes the curve, the ſouthern line the ſhorteſt, the eaſtern line the longeſt ſide.

CIVIL DIVISIONS.] This State is divided into 5 countries, which are ſubdivided into townſhips, moſt of which are about 6 miles ſquare.

Counties.	*Townſhips.*	*Inhabitants.*	*Chief Towns.*	*No. Inhab.*
Rockingham	46	43,169	Portſmouth, Lat. 43° 5′	4,720
			Exeter	1,722
			Concord	1,747
Strafford	24 and 3 locations	23,601	Dover	1,998
			Durham	1,247
Hilliſborough	37 and 3 locations	28,772	Amhurſt	2,369
Cheſhire	34	32,871	Keen	1,314
			Charleſton	1,093
Grafton	50 and 17 locations	13,472	Haverhill	552
			Plymouth	625
Total	214	141,885		

CLIMATE.] See New England.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] This State has but about 18 miles of ſea coaſt, at its ſouth-eaſt corner. In this diſtance there are ſeveral coves for fiſhing veſſels; but the only harbour for ſhips is the entrance of Piſcataqua river, the ſhores of which are rocky. The ſhore is moſtly a ſandy beach, adjoining which are ſalt marſhes, interſected by creeks. From the ſea no remarkable high lands in New Hampſhire appear, nearer than 20 or 30 miles. The firſt ridge, by the name of the Blue Hills, paſſes through Rocheſter, Barrington, and Nottingham, and the ſeveral ſummits are diſtinguiſhed by different names. Beyond theſe are ſeveral higher, detached mountains. Farther back, the mountains riſe ſtill higher, and among this third range, Chocorua, Oſſapy, and Kyar-ſarge, are the principal. Beyond theſe is the lofty ridge which divides the branches of Connecticut and Merrimack rivers, denominated *The Height of Land.* In this ridge is the celebrated Monadnock mountain. Thirty miles north of which is Sunapee, and 48 miles further, in the ſame direction, is Mooſehillock mountain. The ridge is then continued northerly, dividing the waters of the river Connecticut from thoſe of Saco, and Ameriſcoggin. Here the mountains riſe much higher, and the moſt elevated ſummits in this range are the White Mountains. The lands weſt of this laſt mentioned range of mountains, bordering on Connecticut river, are interſperſed with extenſive meadows or intervales, rich and well watered.

MOUNTAINS.] We have already named the moſt conſiderable mountains in this State. Several of them require a particular deſcription. We begin with the Monadnock, which lies 10 miles north of the ſouthern boundary of the State, and 22 miles eaſt of Connecticut river. The elevation of this mountain above the level of the ſea, as meaſured by James Winthrop, Eſq. 1780, is 3254 feet. The baſe of this mountain is about five miles in diameter from north to ſouth, and three from eaſt to weſt. Its ſummit is a bald rock: and on the ſides are ſome appearances of the exploſion of ſubterraneous fires. In Weſt River mountain, adjoining Connecticut river, in the townſhip of Cheſterfield, appearances of a ſimilar nature are more viſible. About the year 1730, the garriſon of Fort Dummer, four miles diſtant, was alarmed with frequent exploſions of fire and ſmoke emitted from the mountain. The like appearances have been obſerved ſince.

Oſſapy mountain lies adjoining the town of Moultonborough, on the north eaſt. In this town it is obſerved, that in a N. E. ſtorm the wind falls over the mountain, like water over a dam; and with ſuch force, as frequently to unroof houſes.

Mooſehillock mountain is the higheſt of this chain, the White Mountains excepted. It takes its name from the circumſtance of its being a remarkable range for Mooſe. This mountain is about 70 miles weſtward of the White mountains. From its N. W. ſide flows Baker's river, a branch of Pemigewaſſet. On this mountain ſnow has been ſeen, from the town of Newbury, on the 30th of June and 31ſt of Auguſt; and on the mountains intervening, called Franconia and Lincoln mountains, ſnow, it is ſaid, lies through the year.

People who live near theſe mountains, by noticing the various movements of attracted vapours, can form a pretty accurate judgement of the weather; and they hence ſtyle theſe mountains their Almanack. If a cloud is attracted by a mountain, and hovers on its top, they predict rain; and if after rain the mountain continues capped, they expect a repetition of ſhowers. A ſtorm is preceded for ſeveral hours by a roaring of the mountain, which may be heard 10 or 12 miles.

But the White Mountains are by far the moſt ſtupendous of any in this State or in New England, and perhaps are the moſt remarkable of any within the United States; they therefore merit particular notice. The Rev. Dr. Belknap elegantly deſcribes them as follows:

"They are undoubtedly the higheſt land in New England, and in clear weather, are diſcovered before any other land, by veſſels coming in to the eaſtern coaſt: but by reaſon of their white appearance, are frequently miſtaken for clouds. They are viſible on the land at the diſtance of eighty miles, on the ſouth and ſouth-eaſt ſides; they appear higher when viewed from the north-eaſt, and it is ſaid, they are ſeen from the neighbourhood of Chamble and Quebec. The Indians gave them the name of Agiocochook: They had a very ancient tradition that their country was once drowned, with all its inhabitants, except one Powaw and his wife, who, foreſeeing the flood, fled to theſe mountains, where they were preſerved, and that from them the country was re-peopled.* They had a ſuperſtitious veneration for the ſummit, as the habitation of inviſible beings; they never venture to aſcend it, and always endeavour to diſſuade every one from the attempt. From them, and the captives, whom they ſometimes led to Canada, through the paſſes of theſe mountains, many fictions have been propagated, which have given riſe to marvellous and incredible ſtories; particularly, it has been reported, that at immenſe and inacceſſible heights there have been ſeen carbuncles, which are ſuppoſed to appear luminous in the night. Some writers, who have attempted to give an account of theſe mountains, have aſcribed the whiteneſs of them to ſhining rocks, or a kind of white moſs; and the higheſt ſummit has been deemed inacceſſible on account of the extreme cold, which threatens to freeze the traveller in the midſt of ſummer.

Nature has, indeed, in that region, formed her works on a large ſcale, and preſented to view many objects which do not ordinarily occur. A perſon who is unacquainted with a mountainous country, cannot, upon his firſt coming into it, make an adequate judgement of height and diſtances; he will imagine every thing to be nearer and leſs than it really is, until, by experience, he learns to correct his apprehenſions, and accommodate his eye to the magnitude and ſituation of the objects around him. When amazement is excited by the grandeur and ſublimity of the ſcenes preſented to view, it

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* Joſſelyn's Voyage to New England, p. 135.

is neceſſary to curb the imagination, and exerciſe judgement with mathematical preciſion; or the temptation to romance will be invincible.

The White Mountains are the moſt elevated part of a ridge, which extends N. E. and S. W. to an immenſe diſtance. The area of their baſe is an irregular figure, the whole circuit of which is not leſs than ſixty miles. The number of ſummits within this area cannot at preſent be aſcertained, the country round them being a thick wilderneſs. The greateſt number which can be ſeen at once, is at Dartmouth, on the N. W. ſide, where ſeven ſummits appear at one view, of which four are bald. Of theſe the three higheſt are the moſt diſtant, being on the eaſtern ſide of the cluſter; one of theſe is the mountain which makes ſo majeſtic an appearance all along the ſhore of the eaſtern counties of Maſſachuſetts: It has lately been diſtinguiſhed by the name of MOUNT WASHINGTON.

To arrive at the foot of this mountain, there is a continual aſcent of twelve miles, from the plain of Pigwacket, which brings the traveller to the height of land between Saco and Ameriſcoggin rivers. At this height there is a level of about a mile ſquare, part of which is a meadow, formerly a beaver pond, with a dam at each end. Here, though elevated more than three thouſand feet above the level of the ſea, the traveller finds himſelf in a deep valley. On the eaſt is a ſteep mountain, out of which iſſue ſeveral ſprings, one of which is the fountain of Ellis River, a branch of Saco, which runs ſouth; another of Peabody river, a branch of Ameriſcoggin, which runs north. From this meadow towards the weſt, there is an uninterrupted aſcent on a ridge between two deep gullies, to the ſummit of Mount Waſhington.

The lower part of the mountain is ſhaded by a thick growth of ſpruce and fir. The ſurface is compoſed of rocks, covered with very long green moſs, which extends from one rock to another, and is, in many places, ſo thick and ſtrong as to bear a man's weight. This immenſe bed of moſs ſerves as a ſponge to retain the moiſture brought by the clouds and vapours, which are frequently riſing and gathering round the mountains; the thick growth of wood prevents the rays of the ſun from penetrating to exhale it; ſo that there is a conſtant ſupply of water depoſited in the crevices of the rocks, and iſſuing in the form of ſprings from every part of the mountain.

The rocks which compoſe the ſurface of the mountain, are, in ſome parts, ſlate, in others flint; ſome ſpecimens of rock chryſtal have been found, but of no great value. No lime ſtone has yet been diſcovered, though the moſt likely rocks have been tried with aqua fortis. There is one precipice on the eaſtern ſide, not only completely perpendicular, but compoſed of ſquare ſtones, as regular as a piece of maſonry; it is about five feet high, and from fifteen to twenty in length. The uppermoſt rocks of the mountain are the common quartz, of a dark grey colour; when broken, they ſhew very ſmall ſhining ſpecks, but there is no ſuch appearance on the exterior part. The eaſtern ſide of the mountain riſes in an angle of 45 degrees, and requires ſix or ſeven hours of hard labour to aſcend it. Many of the precipices are ſo ſteep as to oblige the traveller to uſe his hands, as well as his feet, and to hold by the trees, which diminiſh in ſize, till they degenerate into ſhrubs and buſhes. Above theſe are low vines, ſome bearing red, and others blue berries, and the uppermoſt vegetation is a ſpecies of graſs, called winter-graſs, mixed with the moſs of the rocks.

Having ſurmounted the upper and ſteepeſt precipice, there is a large area, called the plain. It is a dry heath, compoſed of rocks covered with moſs, and bearing the appearance of a paſture in the beginning of the winter ſeaſon. In ſome openings,

between

between the rocks, there are ſprings of water, in others, dry gravel. Here the grous or heath bird reſorts, and is generally out of danger. The ſugar loaf, which ſtands on this plain, is a pyramidal heap of grey rocks, which, in ſome places, are formed like winding ſteps. This pinnacle has been aſcended in a hour and a half. The traveller having gained the ſummit, is recompenſed for his toil, if the ſky be ſerene, with a moſt noble and extenſive proſpect. On the S. E. ſide, there is a view of the Atlantic Ocean, the neareſt part of which is ſixty-five miles in a direct line. On the W. and N. the proſpect is bounded by the high lands, which ſeparate the waters of Connecticut and Ameriſcoggin rivers from thoſe of Lake Champlain and St. Lawrence. On the ſouth, it extends to the ſouthernmoſt mountains of New Hampſhire, comprehending a view of the Lake Winipiſeogee. On every ſide of theſe mountains are long winding gullies, beginning at the precipice below the plain, and deepening in the deſcent. In winter, the ſnow lodges in theſe gullies; and being driven, by the N. W. and N. E. wind, from the top, is deepeſt in thoſe which are ſituated on the ſoutherly ſide. It is obſerved to lie longer in the ſpring on the ſouth, than on the N. W. ſide, which is the caſe with many other hills in New Hampſhire.

During the period of nine or ten months, the mountains exhibit more or leſs of that bright appearance, from which they are denominated white. In the ſpring, when the ſnow is partly diſſolved, they appear of a pale blue, ſtreaked with white; and after it is wholly gone, at the diſtance of 60 miles, they are altogether of the ſame pale blue, nearly approaching a ſky colour; while at the ſame time, viewed at the diſtance of eight miles or leſs, they appear of the proper colour of the rock. Theſe changes are obſerved by people who live within conſtant view of them; and from theſe facts and obſervations, it may with certainty be concluded, that the whiteneſs of them is wholly cauſed by the ſnow, and not by any other white ſubſtance, for in fact there is none.

A company of gentlemen viſited theſe mountains in July 1784, with a view to make particular obſervations on the ſeveral phenomena which might occur. It happened unfortunately, that thick clouds covered the mountains almoſt the whole time, ſo that ſome of the inſtruments, which, with much labour, they had carried up, were rendered uſeleſs.

The height of the mountain was computed, in round numbers, at five thouſand five hundred feet above the meadow, in the valley below, and nearly ten thouſand feet above the level of the ſea.*

Theſe vaſt and irregular heights, being copiouſly repleniſhed with water, exhibit a great variety of beautiful caſcades; ſome of which fall in a perpendicular ſheet or ſpout, others are winding and ſloping, others ſpread and form a baſon in the rock, and then guſh in a cataract over its edge. A poetic fancy may find full gratification amidſt theſe wild and rugged ſcenes, if its ardour be not checked by the fatigue of the approach. Almoſt every thing in nature, which can be ſuppoſed capable of inſpiring ideas of the ſublime and beautiful, is here realized. Aged mountains, ſtupendous elevations, rolling clouds, impending rocks, verdant woods, chryſtal ſtreams, the gentle rill, and the roaring torrent, all conſpire to amaze, to ſoothe, and to enrapture.

* This computation was made by the Rev. Dr. Cutler. Subſequent obſervations and calculations have induced the author to believe the computation of his ingenious friend too moderate, and he is perſuaded, that whenever the mountain can be meaſured with the requiſite preciſion, it will be found to exceed ten thouſand feet of perpendicular altitude above the level of the ocean.

On

On the weſtern part of theſe mountains is a paſs, commonly called the Notch, which, in the narroweſt part, meaſures but twenty-two feet, between two perpendicular rocks. From the height above it, a brook deſcends, and meanders through a meadow, formerly a beaver pond. It is ſurrounded by rocks, which on one ſide are perpendicular, and on the others riſe in an angle of forty-five degrees—a ſtrikingly pictureſque ſcene! This defile was known to the Indians, who formerly led their captives through it to Canada; but it had been forgotten or neglected, till the year 1771, when two hunters paſſed through it, and from their report, the proprietors of lands, on the northern parts of Connecticut river, formed the plan of a road through it to the Upper Coos, from which it is diſtant twenty-five miles. Along the eaſtern ſide of the meadow, under the perpendicular rock, is a cauſeway of large logs, ſunk into the mud by rocks blown with gunpowder from the mountain. On this foundation is conſtructed a road which paſſes through the narrow defile at the ſouth end of the meadow, leaving a paſſage for the rivulet, which glides along the weſtern ſide. This rivulet is the head of the river Saco; and on the north ſide of the meadow, at a little diſtance, is another brook, which is the head of Amonooſuck, a large branch of Connecticut river. The latitude of this place is 44° 12′ N.

The rivulet, which gives riſe to Saco, deſcends towards the ſouth; and at a little diſtance from the defile, its waters are augmented by two ſtreams from the left, one of which deſcends in a trench of two feet wide, and is called the flume, from the near reſemblance which it bears to an artificial flume. Over theſe are thrown ſtrong bridges; and the whole conſtruction of this road is firm and durable; much labour has been expended upon it, and the neat proceeds of a confiſcated eſtate were applied to defray the expenſe. In the deſcent the paſs widens, and the ſtream increaſes; but for eight or ten miles from the notch, the mountains on each ſide are ſo near, as to leave room only for the river and its intervales; which are not more than half a mile wide. In the courſe of this deſcent, ſeveral curious objects preſent themſelves to view. On the ſide of one mountain is a projection reſembling a ſhelf, on which ſtands four large ſquare rocks, in a form reſembling as many huge folio volumes. In two or three places, at immenſe heights, and perfectly inacceſſible, appear rocks of a white and red hue, the ſurface of which is poliſhed like a mirror by the conſtant trickling of water over them. Theſe being expoſed to the weſt and ſouth, are capable, in the night, of reflecting the moon and ſtar beams to the wondering traveller in the deep, dark valley below, and by the help of imagination, are ſufficient to give riſe to the fiction of carbuncles.

To encompaſs theſe mountains, as the roads are laid out through the eaſtern and weſtern paſſes, and round the northern ſide of the whole cluſter, it is neceſſary to travel more than ſeventy miles, and to ford eight conſiderable rivers, beſides many ſmaller ſtreams. The diſtance between the heads of rivers, which purſue ſuch different courſes, from this immenſe elevation, and which fall into the ſea, ſo many hundred miles aſunder, is ſo ſmall, that a traveller may, in the courſe of one day, drink the waters of Saco, Ameriſcoggin, and Connecticut rivers. Theſe waters are all perfectly limpid and ſweet, excepting one brook, on the eaſtern ſide of Mount Waſhington, which has a ſaponaceous taſte, and is covered with a very thick and ſtrong froth. It is ſaid, that there is a part of the mountain where the magnetic needle refuſes to traverſe; this is probably cauſed by a body of iron ore. It is alſo ſaid that a mineral, ſuppoſed to be lead, has been diſcovered near the eaſtern paſs; but that the ſpot cannot now be found. What ſtores the bowels of theſe mountains contain, time muſt unfold; all ſearches for ſubterraneous treaſures having hitherto proved fruitleſs. The moſt certain

riches which they yield, are the freſhets which bring down the ſoil to the intervales below, and form a fine mould, producing, by the aid of cultivation, corn and herbage in the moſt luxuriant plenty.*

Rivers.] Five of the largeſt ſtreams in New England receive more or leſs of their waters from this State. Theſe are Connecticut, Ameriſcoggin, Saco, Merrimack, and Piſcataqua rivers.

Connecticut river riſes in the Highlands which ſeparate the United States from the Britiſh province of Lower Canada. It has been ſurveyed about twenty-five miles beyond the 45th degree of latitude, to the head ſpring of its north-weſtern branch. It is ſettled all the way nearly to its ſource. Its general courſe is about S. S. W. It extends along the weſtern ſide of New Hampſhire about 170 miles, and then paſſes into Maſſachuſetts. The rivers which it receives from Vermont, on the weſtern ſide, have been already mentioned. Beſides ſmaller ſtreams, it receives from New Hampſhire, Upper Amonooſuck, which paſſes through excellent meadows, Iſrael river, a romantic ſtream, bordered with fine land, as is John's river, a deep, muddy ſtream, twenty-five or thirty yards wide, ſix miles below Iſrael river. This country is called Upper Coos. Juſt above the town of Haverhill, in Lower Coos, falls in Great or Lower Amonooſuck, 100 yards wide; and which, two miles from its mouth, receives Wild Amonooſuck, forty yards wide, from Franconia and Lincoln mountains. Two or three hours heavy rain raiſes the water in this river ſeveral feet, and occaſions a current ſo furious, as to put in motion ſtones of a foot in diameter; but its violence ſoon ſubſides. As you proceed ſouth to the Maſſachuſetts line you paſs Sugar, Cold, and Aſhuelot rivers.

Connecticut river, in its courſe between New Hampſhire and Vermont, has two conſiderable falls; the firſt are called Fifteen Mile Falls, between Upper and Lower Coos---the river is rapid for twenty miles. At Walpole is a ſecond remarkable fall, formerly known by the name of the Great Fall, now denominated Bellows' Falls. The breadth of the river above them is, in ſome places, twenty-two, in others not above ſixteen rods. The depth of the channel is about twenty-five feet, and commonly runs full of water. In September 1792, however, owing to the ſevere draught, the water of the river, it is ſaid, "paſſed within the ſpace of twelve feet wide and 2½ feet deep." A large rock divides the ſtream into two channels, each about ninety feet wide. When the water is low, the eaſtern channel is dry, being croſſed by a bar of ſolid rock, and the whole ſtream falls into the weſtern channel, where it is contracted to the breadth of ſixteen feet, and flows with aſtoniſhing rapidity. The perpendicular height of this fall has not been aſcertained, nor the depth of the water below it. There are ſeveral pitches one above another, in the length of half a mile, the largeſt of which is that where the rock divides the ſtream. Notwithſtanding the velocity of the current, the ſalmon paſs up the fall, and are taken many miles above; but the ſhad proceed no farther. This is the famous fall which is ſo extravagantly and ludicrouſly deſcribed in an anonymous publication, filled with ſuch extravagant falſehoods, commonly known by the title of "Peters' Hiſtory of Connecticut."

On the ſteep ſides of the iſland rock hang ſeveral arm chairs, faſtened to ladders, and ſecured by a counterpoiſe, in which fiſhermen ſet to catch ſalmon with dipping nets. In 1784, a bridge of timber, conſtructed by Colonel Hale, was projected over this fall, 365 feet long, and ſupported in the middle by the great rock, under which the higheſt floods paſs without detriment. This is the firſt and only bridge that

* See Dr. Belknap's Hiſtory of New Hampſhire, Vol. III. p. 39.

has

has been erected upon this river, but it is in contemplation to erect another, thirty miles above, at the middle bar of Agar Falls, where the paſſage for the water between the rocks is about 100 feet wide. This place is in the townſhip of Lebanon, two miles below Dartmouth College. This beauiful river, in its whole length, is lined on each ſide, with a great number of the moſt flouriſhing and pleaſant towns in the United States. In its whole courſe it preſerves a diſtance of from 80 to 100 miles from the ſea coſt.

Merrimack river is formed by the confluence of Pemigewaſſet and Winnipiſeogee rivers; the former is a very rapid river, and ſprings from a white mountain, weſt of the noted mountains of that name; and before its junction with the Winnipiſeogee branch, it receives from the weſt, Baker's river, a pleaſant ſtream, forty miles in length, and ſeveral ſmaller ſtreams. The Winnipiſeogee branch riſes from the lake of the ſame name. The ſtream which iſſues from the lake is ſmall, and in its courſe paſſes through a bay twelve miles long, and from three to five broad. A few miles from its entrance into the Pemigewaſſet, is a place called the Wares, remarkable for the number of ſalmon and ſhad which are here caught. The river is wide, and ſo ſhallow that the fiſhermen turn the courſe of the river in a ſhort time, or compreſs it into a narrow channel, where they fix their gill nets, and take the fiſh as they paſs up the ſtream. After the Pemigewaſſet receives the waters of Winnipiſeogee, it takes the name of Merrimack; and after a courſe of about ninety miles, firſt in a ſoutherly, and then in an eaſterly direction, and paſſing over Hookſet, Amuſkeag, and Pantucket Falls, empties into the ſea at Newburyport. From the weſt it receives, Blackwater, Contoocook, Piſcataquoag, Souhegan, Naſhua, and Concord rivers; from the eaſt, Bowcook, Suncook, Cohas, Beaver, Spicket, and Powow rivers. Contoocook heads near Monadnock mountain, is very rapid, and ten or twelve miles from its mouth is 100 yards wide. Juſt before its entrance into the Merrimack it branches and forms a beautiful iſland of five or ſix acres. This iſland is remarkable, as being the ſpot where a Mrs. Dunſtan performed an extraordinary exploit. This woman had been taken by a party of Indians from Haverhill in Maſſachuſetts, and carried to this iſland. The Indians, eight or ten in number, fatigued, and thinking themſelves ſecure, fell aſleep. She improved this importunity to make her eſcape, and that ſhe might effect it without danger of being purſued, ſhe, with one of their tomahawks killed them all, and ſcalped them, and took their canoe, and returned down the river to Haverhill, and carried the ſcalps to Boſton, where ſhe was generouſly rewarded.

A bridge has lately been projected over Amuſkeag Falls, 556 feet in length, and 80 feet wide, ſupported by five piers, and an abutment on each ſide; the top of the bridge is thirty feet from the bottom of the river. In the conſtruction of the wood work 2000 tons of timber were uſed; and what is remarkable, this bridge was rendered paſſable for travellers in fifty-ſeven days after it was begun. Two other bridges are building over this river in Maſſachuſetts.

" The Piſcataqua is the only large river whoſe whole courſe is in New Hampſhire. Its head is a pond in the N. E. corner of the town of Wakefield, and its general courſe thence, to the ſea, is S. S. E. about forty miles. It divides New Hampſhire from York County, in the diſtrict of Main, and is called Salmon-fall river, from its head to the lower falls at Berwick, where it aſſumes the name of Newichawannock, which it bears till it meets with Cochecho river, which comes from Dover, when both run together in one channel to Hilton's Point, where the weſtern branch meets it. From this junction to the ſea, the river is ſo rapid that it never freezes; the diſtance is ſeven miles, and the courſe generally from S. to S. E. The weſtern branch is formed by

Swamſcot river, which comes from Exeter. Winnicot river, which comes through Greenland, and Lamprey river, which divides Newmarket from Durham; theſe empty into a bay, four miles wide, called the Great Bay. The water in its further progreſs is contracted into a leſſer bay, and then it receives Oyſter river, which runs through Durham and Back river, which comes from Dover, and at length meets with the main ſtream at Hilton's Point. The tide riſes into all theſe bays, and branches as far as the lower falls in each river, and forms a moſt rapid current, eſpecially at the ſeaſon of the freſhets, when the ebb continues about two hours longer than the flood; and were it not for the numerous eddies, formed by the indentings of the ſhore, the ferries would then be impaſſable.

At the lower falls in the ſeveral branches of the river, are landing places, whence lumber and other country produce is tranſported, and veſſels or boats from below diſcharge their lading: ſo that in each river there is a convenient trading-place, not more than twelve or fifteen miles diſtant from Portſmouth, with which there is conſtant communication by every tide. Thus the river, from its form and the ſituation of its branches, is extremely favourable to the purpoſes of navigation and commerce.

At Dover is a high neck of land, between the main branch of Paſcataqua and Back river, about two miles long, and half a mile wide, riſing gently along a fine road, and declining on each ſide like a ſhip's deck. It commands an extenſive and variegated proſpect of the rivers, bays, adjacent ſhores, and diſtant mountains. It has often been admired by travellers, as an elegant ſituation for a city, and by military gentlemen, for a fortreſs. The firſt ſettlers pitched here, but the trade has long ſince been removed to Cochecho Falls, about four miles farther up; and this beautiful ſpot is almoſt deſerted of inhabitants."*

Amariſcoggin and Saco rivers are principally in the diſtrict of Main, and will be deſcribed under that head.

Lakes.] Winnipiſeogee lake, is the largeſt collection of water in New Hampſhire. It is about 24 miles in length, from S. E. to N. W. and of very unequal breadth, from 3 to 12 miles. It is full of iſlands, and is ſupplied with numerous rivulets from the ſurrounding mountains. This lake is frozen about three months in a year, and many ſleighs and teams from the circumjacent towns croſs it on the ice. In ſummer it is navigable its whole length. The landing on the S. E. ſide of the lake is 26 miles from Dover landing, where the tide flows.

The other conſiderable lakes are, Umbagog, in the N. E. corner of the State, and partly in the diſtrict of Main, Squam, Sunnapee, and Great Oſſapee.

Soil and Productions.] Of theſe there is a great variety in this State. The intervale lands upon the margin of the large rivers are the moſt valuable, becauſe they are overflowed and enriched every year by the water from the uplands, which brings down a fat ſlime or ſediment. There are generally two ſtrata of intervale lands on the borders of the large rivers, one is overflowed every year; the other, which is conſiderably higher, only in very high freſhets. Theſe intervale lands are of various breadth, according to the near or remote ſituation of the hills. On Connecticut river, they are from a quarter of a mile to a mile and a half on each ſide; and it is obſervable, that they yield wheat in greater abundance and perfection than the ſame kind of ſoil eaſt of the height of land. Theſe lands, in every part of the State, yield all the other kinds of grain in the greateſt perfection; but are not ſo good for paſture as the uplands of a proper quality. The wide-ſpreading hills are generally much eſteemed as warm and rich; rocky, moiſt land is accounted good for paſture; drained ſwamps have a deep mellow ſoil; and the valleys between hills are generally very productive. Apples

* Belknap's Hiſt. vol. iii. page 201.

Apples and pears are the moſt common, and the principal fruits cultivated in this State. No good huſbandman thinks his farm complete without an orchard.

Agriculture is the chief buſineſs of the inhabitants of this State. Beef, pork, mutton, poultry, wheat, rye, Indian corn, barley, pulſe, butter, cheeſe, flax, hemp, hops, eſculent plants and roots, articles which will always find a market, may be produced in almoſt any quantity in New Hampſhire.

TRADE AND MANUFACTURES.] The inhabitants in the ſouth-weſtern quarter of this State generally carry their produce to Boſton. In the middle and northern part, as far as the Lower Coos, they trade at Portſmouth. Above the Lower Coos there are yet no convenient roads directly to the ſea-coaſt. The people on the upper branches of Saco river find their neareſt market at Portland, in the diſtrict of Main; and thither the inhabitants of Upper Coos have generally carried their produce; ſome have gone in the other direction to New York market. But from a ſurvey made in 1782, it was found that a road from the upper Amonooſuck, which empties into Connecticut river, to the head of navigation in Kennebeck river, is very practicable: the diſtance 80 or 90 miles; and for a third part of that diſtance from Kennebeck, there are already roads and ſettlements.

The articles and the quantity of each, exported and imported into the port of Paſcataqua, in two years following October 1ſt, 1789, will appear from the following tables taken from Dr. Belknap's Hiſtory.

TABLE of EXPORTATION from the Port of PASCATAQUA, from October 1, 1789, to October 1, 1791.

Articles exported.	*To Europe.*	*W. Indies.*	*N. Scotia.*	*Africa.*	*Total.*
1000 feet of Pine Boards	6247	11,622	96	69	18,034
Ditto, feet of oak plank	378	26	—	—	404
Ditto, ſtaves and heading	1317	1608	44	—	2969
Ditto, clapboards	2	19	—	—	21
Ditto, ſhingles	—	268	—	—	2689
Ditto, hoops	—	79¾	7	—	86¾
Feet of oar-rafters	47,000	950	—	—	47,950
Tons of pine timber	88½	86	—	—	174½
Ditto, oak timber	251	20	—	—	271
Frames of houſes	—	12	—	—	12
Pine maſts	41	4	—	—	45
Spruce ſpars	13	72	—	—	85
Shook hogſheads	—	2079	—	—	2079
Waggons	—	2	—	—	2
Pairs of cart wheels	—	14	—	—	14
Sets of yokes and bows	—	28	—	—	28
Boats	—	30	—	—	30
Handſpikes	80	—	—	—	80
Quintals of dry fiſh	250	26,207	—	—	26,457
Barrels of pickled fiſh	—	501	—	—	501
Ditto, whale oil	—	120	—	—	120
Ditto, tar	1613	60	—	—	1673

Articles exported	*To Europe.*	*W. Indies*	*N. Scotia.*	*Africa.*	*Total.*
Caſks of flax-ſeed	1798	—	—	—	1798
Barrels of beef	—	2775	2	—	2777
Ditto, pork	—	9	1	—	10
Ditto, rice	—	—	—	2	2
Buſhels of Indian corn	—	391	—	2000	2391
Oxen and cows	—	577	33	—	610
Horſes	—	207	2	—	209
Sheep	—	261	229	—	490
Gallons of N. E. rum	—	—	150	1449	1599
Ditto, Madeira wine	—	845	—	—	845
Thouſands of bricks	—	129	—	—	129
Tons of pot aſh	88½	—	—	—	88½
Ditto, pearl aſh	30½	—	—	—	30½
Boxes of candles		28	—	—	28

Total value of exportation for two years - 296,839 *dollars* 51 *cents.*

TABLE of IMPORTATION into the Port of PASCATAQUA, from October 1, 1789, to October 1, 1791.

Articles imported from	*Europe.*	*Weſt Indies.*	*N. Scotia.*	*Total.*
Gallons of rum	—	138,911	—	138,911
Do. gin	—	22½	—	22½
Do. molaſſes	—	270,785	—	270,785
Do. wine from Madeira	—	—	—	4721
Do. porter	457	—	—	457
lbs. of unrefined ſugar	—	546,648	—	546,648
Do. loaf ſugar	—	—	77	77
Do. coffee	—	68,633	—	68,633
Do. cotton	—	17,564	—	17,564
Do. cocoa	—	27,944	—	27,944
Do. cheeſe	1056	—	—	1056
Do. tea	2696	86	—	2782
Do. twine	2204	—	—	2204
Do. nails	16,890	—	—	16,890
Hundreds of cordage	17,1,7	—	—	17,1,7
Do. hemp	940 --	—	—	940 --
Buſhels of ſalt	(*part*)	(*part*)	—	98,336
Do. ſea coal	3131	—	—	3131
lbs. of ſteel unwrought	16,527	—	—	16,527
Do. bar and ſheet lead	4336	—		4336
Grindſtones	—	—	(a few not aſcertained.)	

N. B. "What comes coaſt-ways from any of the United States cannot be aſcertained; as no regular entries are made where only the produce of the United States is on board: except accompanied with more than two hundred dollars value of foreign articles. The value of imported articles is generally governed by the Boſton market."

TABLE

TABLE of CLEARANCES at the Port of PASCATAQUA, from October 1, 1789, to October 1, 1791.

	Ships and Snows.	Brigantines.	Schooners.	Sloops.	Total of veſſels.	American tonnage	French ditto.	Britiſh ditto.	Portugueſe ditto.	Total of tonnage.
France										
French Weſt Indies -	17	70	39	10	136	16616	264			16880
St. Peter's and Miquelon -			8	1	9	428	34			462
England - -	16	25	1		42	6725		441		7166
Scotland - -		4			4	616				616
Ireland - - -	1	3			4	666				666
Britiſh Weſt Indies -	8	3	4	1	16			3134		3134
Nova Scotia - -			12		12			502		502
Portugal - -										
Portugueſe Iſlands -	1				1				162	162
Holland and Plantations -		2			2	233				233
Denmark and Iſlands -										
Africa - -			1		1	110				110
Coaſting and cod fiſhery -			40	10	50	1166				1166
Total -	43	107	105	22	277	26560	298	4077	162	31097

STATEMENT of the FISHERIES at PASCATAQUA and its neighbourhood.

Schooners -	27	employed in the Cod and Scale Fiſhery annually.
Boats - -	20	
Tonnage -	630	
Seamen	250	

The Schooners, Boats, and Seamen, belonging to the Iſles of Shoals are not included in the above eſtimation.

Product of the Fiſhery in the year 1791.

Quintals made	Merchantable fiſh	-	5170
	Jamaica ditto	-	14217
	Scale ditto	-	6463
	Total	-	25850

The fiſh made at the Iſles of Shoals are included in this ſtatement.

The ſucceſs of the fiſhery in this ſeaſon was uncommonly good.

The ſtaple commodities of New Hampſhire are ſhips, lumber, proviſions, fiſh, horſes, pot and pearl aſhes, and flax ſeed.—Ships are built in all the towns contiguous to

to the river Paſcataqua and its branches. The number of ſhips, built in 1790, was 8; in 1791, 20.

The number of ſhips and other veſſels belonging to the port of Paſcataqua, in 1791, was as follows: above 100 tons, 33; under 100 tons, 50—in all 83.

The people in the country generally manufacture their own clothing; and conſiderable quantities of tow cloth for exportation. The other manufactures are pot and pearl aſhes, maple ſugar, bricks and pottery, and ſome iron, not ſufficient, however, for home conſumption, though it might be made an article of exportation.

BANK.] By act of aſſembly, of January, 1792, a bank, by the name of "The Bank of New Hampſhire," was eſtabliſhed, to continue fifty years, under the management of a preſident and ſeven directors. The capital ſtock is 60,000 dollars; and the ſtockholders have liberty to increaſe it to 200,000 dollars ſpecie, and 100,000 dollars in any other eſtate.

POPULATION AND CHARACTER.] The number of inhabitants in 1790, has been mentioned in the preceding table of diviſions. In 1767 they were eſtimated at 52,700. The mean increaſing ratio per annum ſince, Dr. Belknap reckons at 3883. According to this mode of computation, the number of people in New Hampſhire has actually doubled in leſs than 19 years; 7 of thoſe 19 were years of war.

Dr. Belknap mentions a number of inſtances of remarkable longevity in this State. In Barrington, 14 of the firſt ſettlers were living in 1785, who were between 80 and 90 years of age. In Londonderry, the firſt planters lived on an average, to 80 years, and ſome to 104. One Robert Macklin, a native of Scotland, died at Wakefield, in 1787, aged 115. He frequently walked from Portſmouth to Boſton, 66 miles, in one day, and returned the next. He performed this journey the laſt time, when he was 80 years old.

The inhabitants of New Hampſhire, like the ſettlers in all new countries, are in general, a hardy, robuſt, active, brave people. The advantages of early education have not been ſo generally enjoyed, as good men have wiſhed; in conſequence of which there has been a deficiency of perſons properly qualified to fill the various departments of government. But ſince the revolution, the means of information and improvement have been increaſed and extended, and this political evil in a great meaſure remedied.

"The free indulgence of ſpirituous liquors has been, and is now, one of the greateſt faults of many of the people of New Hampſhire; eſpecially in the neighbourhood of the river Paſcataqua and its branches, and wherever the buſineſs of getting lumber forms the principal employment of the people. In travelling up the country it affords pleaſure to obſerve the various articles of produce and manufacture coming to market; but in travelling down the country it is equally diſguſtful to meet the ſame teams returning, loaded with caſks of *rum*, along with fiſh, ſalt, and other neceſſary articles. Among huſbandmen, cyder is their common drink. Malt liquor is not ſo frequently uſed as its wholeſomeneſs deſerves. But after all, there are no perſons more robuſt and healthy, than thoſe, whoſe only or principal drink is the ſimple element, with which nature has univerſally and bountifully ſupplied this happy land."*

COLLEGE, ACADEMIES, &c.] The only college in this State is in the townſhip of Hanover, ſituated on a beautiful plain about half a mile eaſt of Connecticut river, in latitude 43° 33′. It was named *Dartmouth College*, after the Right Honourable *William Earl of Dartmouth*, who was one of its principal benefactors. It was founded by the late pious and benevolent Dr. *Eleazer Wheelock*, who, in 1769, obtained a royal charter, wherein

* Dr. Belknap.

wherein ample privileges were granted, and ſuitable proviſion made for the education and inſtruction of youth of the Indian tribes, in reading, writing, and all parts of learning which ſhould appear neceſſary and expedient for civilizing and chriſtianizing the children of Pagans, as well as in all liberal arts and ſciences, and alſo of Engliſh youths and any others. The very humane and laudable attempts which have been made to chriſtianize and educate the Indians, have not, through their native untractableneſs, been crowned with that ſucceſs which was hoped and expected. Its ſituation in a frontier country expoſed it during the late war to many inconveniencies, which impeded its proſperity. It flouriſhed, however, amidſt all its embarraſſments, and is now one of the moſt growing ſeminaries in the United States.

The funds of this college conſiſt chiefly in lands, amounting to about 80,000 acres, which are increaſing in value, in proportion to the growth of the country. Twelve hundred acres lie contiguous to the college, and are capable of the beſt improvement. Twelve thouſand acres lie in Vermont. A tract of 8 miles ſquare was granted by the aſſembly of New Hampſhire in 1789. The revenue of the college, ariſing from the lands, amounts annually to 140l. By contracts already made, it will amount in four years to 450l; and in twelve years to 650l. The income from tuition is about 600l. per annum.

The number of under graduates, in 1790, was about 150; they have ſince increaſed. A grammar ſchool of about 50 or 60 ſcholars is annexed to the college.

The ſtudents are under the immediate government and inſtruction of a preſident, who is alſo profeſſor of hiſtory; a profeſſor of mathematics and natural philoſophy, a profeſſor of languages, and two tutors. In the 22 years ſince the college was founded, 479 ſtudents have received degrees, 140 of whom are, or have been, miniſters of the goſpel, and 448 are now living.

The college is furniſhed with a handſome library, and a philoſophical apparatus tolerably complete. A new college building, of wood, 150 by 50 feet, and three ſtories high, was erected in 1786, and ſince finiſhed, containing 36 rooms for ſtudents. Its ſituation is elevated, healthful, and pleaſant, commanding an extenſive proſpect to the weſt. There are three other public buildings belonging to the college.

There are a number of academies in this State; the principal of which is at Exeter, founded and endowed by the Hon. John Phillips, L. L. D. of Exeter, and incorporated by act of aſſembly in 1781, by the name of "Phillips's Exeter Academy." It is a very reſpectable and uſeful inſtitution, under the inſpection of a board of truſtees, and the immediate government and inſtruction of a preceptor and an aſſiſtant. It has a fund of nearly 10,000l, one fifth of which is in lands not yet productive. The preſent annual income is 480l. It has commonly between 50 and 60 ſtudents.

An Academy at New Ipſwich was incorporated in 1789; and has a fund of about 1000l. and generally from 40 to 50 ſcholars.

There is another academy at Atkinſon, founded by the Hon. *Nathaniel Peabody*, who has endowed it with a donation of 1000 acres of land. It was incorporated in 1790.

At Amherſt, an academy was incorporated in 1791, by the name of the "*Aurean Academy.*" Similar inſtitutions are forming at Charleſtown, Concord, and other places, which, with the peculiar attention which has lately been paid to ſchools by the legiſlature, and the eſtabliſhment of ſocial libraries in ſeveral towns, afford a pleaſing proſpect of the increaſe of literature and uſeful knowledge in this State.

CHIEF TOWNS.] Portſmouth is the largeſt town in this State. Its longitude is 70° 40′ from the obſervatory at Greenwich. It is about two miles from the ſea, on the

ſouth ſide of Paſcataqua river. It contains about 640 dwelling houſes, and nearly as many other buildings, beſides thoſe for public uſes, which are three congregational churches, one epiſcopal, one univerſaliſt, a ſtate houſe, market houſe, four ſchool houſes, and a work houſe.

Its harbour is one of the fineſt on the continent, having a ſufficient depth of water for veſſels of any burthen. It is defended againſt ſtorms by the adjacent land, in ſuch a manner, as that ſhips may ſecurely ride there in any ſeaſon of the year. Beſides, the harbour is ſo well fortified by nature that very little art will be neceſſary to render it impregnable. Its vicinity to the ſea renders it very convenient for naval trade. A light houſe, with a ſingle light, ſtands at the entrance of the harbour. Ships of war have been built here; among others, the America, of 74 guns, launched Nov. 1782, and preſented to the King of France by the Congreſs of the United States.

Exeter is 15 miles S. W. from Portſmouth, ſituated at the head of navigation, upon Swamſcot, or Exeter river. The tide riſes here 11 feet, it is well ſituated for a manufacturing town, and has already a duck manufactory, in its infancy---6 ſaw mills, a fulling mill, ſlitting mill, paper mill, ſnuff mill, two chocolate and 10 griſt mills, iron works, and a printing office. The public buildings are two congregational churches, an academy, a new and handſome court houſe and a gaol. The public offices of the State are kept here. Formerly this town was famous for ſhip building, but this buſineſs has not flouriſhed ſince its interruption by the war.

Concord is a pleaſant, flouriſhing, inland town, ſituated on the weſt bank of Merrimack river, 54 miles W. N. W. from Portſmouth. The general court, of late, have commonly held their ſeſſions here; and from its central ſituation, and a thriving back country, it will probably ſoon become the permanent ſeat of government. Much of the trade of the upper country centers in this town.

Dover, Amherſt, Keen, Charleſtown, Plymouth, and Haverhill, are the other moſt conſiderable towns in this State. Haverill is a new, thriving town, on the eaſt ſide of Connecticut river, in Lower Coos. It is the moſt conſiderable town in the county of Grafton, and has a well-conſtructed court houſe and a congregational church. In it is a bed of iron ore, which has yielded ſome profit to the proprietor—alſo a quarry of free ſtone, from which the people are ſupplied with chimney pieces, hearth ſtones, &c. It has alſo a fulling mill and an oil mill, and many other excellent mill ſeats.

CURIOSITIES AND CANAL.] In the townſhip of Cheſter is a circular eminence, half a mile in diameter, and 400 feet high, called Rattleſnake Hill. On the ſouth ſide, 10 yards from its baſe, is the entrance of a cave called the Devil's Den, in which is a room 15 or 20 feet ſquare and 4 feet high, floored and circled by a regular rock, from the upper part of which are dependent many excreſcences, nearly in the form and ſize of a pear, and when approached by a torch throw out a ſparkling luſtre of almoſt every hue. Many frightful ſtories have been told of this cave by thoſe who delight in the marvellous. It is a cold, dreary, gloomy place.

In the town of Durham is a rock, computed to weigh 60 or 70 tons. It lies ſo exactly poiſed on another rock, as to be eaſily moved with one finger. It is on the top of a hill, and appears to be natural. In the townſhip of Atkinſon, in a large meadow, there is a ſmall iſland of 6 or 7 acres, which was formerly loaded with valuable pine timber, and other foreſt wood. When the meadow is overflowed, by means of an artificial dam, this iſland riſes with the water, which is ſometimes 6 feet. Near the middle of the iſland is a ſmall pond, which has been gradually leſſening ever ſince it was known, and is now almoſt covered with verdure. In this place a pole 50 feet long has diſappeared, without

without finding bottom. In the water of that pond, there have been fiſh in plenty, which, when the meadow has been overflowed, have appeared there, and when the water has been drawn off, have been left on the meadow, at which time the iſland ſettles to its uſual place.

In the year 1791, a canal was cut through the marſhes, which opens an inland navigation, from Hampton, through Saliſbury, into Merrimack River, for about 8 miles. By this paſſage, loaded boats may be conducted with the utmoſt eaſe and ſafety.

RELIGION.] The principal denominations of Chriſtians in this State are Congregationaliſts, Preſbyterians, Epiſcopalians, Baptiſts, and Quakers. There is a ſmall ſociety of Sandemanians, and another of Univerſaliſts, in Portſmouth. For the diſtinguiſhing characteriſtics of theſe ſeveral ſects, ſee the general account of the United States, article RELIGION.

"The people in general throughout the State are profeſſors of the Chriſtian religion in ſome form or other. There is, however, a ſort of *wiſe men*, who pretend to reject it; but they have not yet been able to ſubſtitute a better in its place." *

CONSTITUTION.] The citizens of this State have lately formed for themſelves a conſtitution of government upon the ſame general principles with their former one, which is not yet publiſhed.

HISTORY.] The firſt diſcovery made by the Engliſh of any part of New Hampſhire, was in 1614, by Captain John Smith, who ranged the ſhore from Penobſcot to Cape Cod; and in this rout, diſcovered the river Paſcataqua. On his return to England, he publiſhed a deſcription of the country, with a map of the coaſt, which he preſented to Prince Charles, who gave it the name of NEW ENGLAND. The firſt ſettlement was made in 1623.

New Hampſhire was for many years under the juriſdiction of the Governor of Maſſachuſetts, yet they had a ſeparate legiſlature. They ever bore a proportionable ſhare of the expences and levies in all enterpriſes, expeditions, and military exertions, whether planned by the colony or the crown. In every ſtage of the oppoſition that was made to the incroachments of the Britiſh parliament, the people, who ever had a high ſenſe of liberty, cheerfully bore their part. At the commencement of hoſtilities, indeed, while their council was appointed by royal *mandamus*, their patriotic ardour was checked by theſe crown officers. But when freed from this reſtraint, they flew eagerly to the American ſtandard, when the voice of their country declared for war, and their troops had a large ſhare of the hazard and fatigue, as well as of the glory of accompliſhing the late revolution.

As the beſt and only hiſtory of this State, the reader is referred to the Rev. Dr. Belknap's, publiſhed complete, in 3 vols. 8vo. in 1792, written in a pure, neat, hiſtoric ſtyle—The two firſt volumes contain the hiſtory of New Hampſhire; the third contains "A geographical deſcription of the State, with ſketches of its natural hiſtory, productions and improvements, laws and government," and is replete with curious and uſeful information, and interſperſed with many ingenious and philoſophical remarks. From this volume much aſſiſtance has been derived, in making the foregoing compilation.

* Dr. Belknap.

DISTRICT OF MAIN.

(Belonging to Maſſachuſetts.)

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.			Sq. miles.
Length 170 / Breadth 125	between	4° and 9° E. Longitude. / 43° and 48° N. Latitude.	21,750

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED north, by Lower Canada, from which it is ſeparated by the high lands; eaſt, by the river St. Croix,* and a line drawn due north from its ſource to the ſaid highlands, which divides it from the Province of New Brunſwick; ſouth, by the Atlantic Ocean; weſt, by New Hampſhire.

The Old Province of Main (included in the above limits) is bounded on the weſt by New Hampſhire; ſouth by the Atlantic Ocean, and north and north-eaſt by the land, called in ſome maps Sagadahock. It was ſuppoſed at the time of its being made a province, to have been 120 miles ſquare; but by a ſettlement of the line, in 1737, on the part, or ſide adjoining New Hampſhire, the form of the land was reduced from a ſquare to that of a diamond. The Province of Main contains, according to Douglas, about 9,600 ſquare miles.

DIVISIONS.] The Diſtrict of Main is divided into five counties, viz.

Counties.	No. Inhabitants.	Chief Towns.	Inhabitants.
York	28,821	York	2,900
Cumberland	25,450	Portland Lat. 43° 43′	2,240
Lincoln	29,962	Pownalborough	2,055
		Hallowell	1,194
		Waldoborough	1,210
Hancock	9,549	Penobſcot	1,048
Waſhington	2,758	Machias	818
Total	96,540		

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, SOIL, AND CLIMATE.] The diſtrict of Main, though an elevated tract of country, cannot be called mountainous. A great proportion of the lands are arable and exceedingly fertile, particularly between Penobſcot and Kenebeck

* What river is referred to under the name of St. Croix, in the treaty of 1783, is at preſent a ſubject of diſpute between Great Britain and the United States. The French, according to their mode of taking poſſeſſion, always fixed a croſs in every river they came to. Almoſt every river on the coaſt they diſcovered, has in turn been called La Riviere de St. Croix.

"There are three rivers that empty themſelves into the Bay of Paſſamaquaddy, the eaſternmoſt always called by the native Indians and French, St. Croix, and the middle one Schoodiac. Before the commencement of the late war, Governor Barnard ſent Mr. Mitchell, a ſurveyor, and ſeveral others, to explore the Bay of Paſſamaquaddy, to examine the natives, and to find out which was the true river St. Croix. They did accordingly, and reported it to be the eaſternmoſt river, and returned correſpondent plans of their ſurvey. At the forming of the treaty of peace, the commiſſioners had Mitchell's maps; and in fixing the boundary between that part of Nova Scotia, now called New Brunſwick, and the Commonwealth of Maſſachuſetts, they conſidered it to be the river laid down by him. After the peace, the Britiſh ſubjects of Nova Scotia took poſſeſſion of all the lands between St. Croix and Schoodiac rivers, which tract is ſaid to be nearly as large as the State of New Hampſhire, and now hold poſſeſſion of the ſame, aſſerting that Schoodiac is the true St. Croix; they alſo claim all the iſlands in the Bay of Paſſamaquaddy, although ſeveral of them lie ſeveral miles weſt of the river which *they* call the boundary."

rivers.

rivers. On ſome parts of the ſea coaſt the lands are but indifferent; but this defect might eaſily be remedied, by manuring it with a marine vegetable, called rock weed, which grows on the rocks between high and low water mark, all along the ſhores. It makes a moſt excellent manure, and the ſupply is immenſe. It generally grows in this diſtrict on all the ſhores that are waſhed by the ſea; and the breadth of the border is in proportion to the height the tide riſes, which, in the eaſtern part of the diſtrict, is nearly 30 feet. It is eſtimated that there are 4000 acres of this rock weed on this coaſt, and that each acre will produce annually 20 loads, making in the whole 80,000 loads of the beſt manure, 10 loads of which ſpread upon an acre are reckoned ſufficient for three years. The country has a large proportion of dead ſwamps and ſunken lands, which are eaſily drained, and leave a rich, fat ſoil. The interior country is univerſally repreſented as being of an excellent ſoil, well adapted both for tillage and paſture.---The lands in general are eaſily cleared, having but little under bruſh.

The diſtrict of Main may naturally be conſidered in three diviſions---The *firſt* comprehending the tract lying eaſt of Penobſcot river, of about 4,500,000 acres---The *ſecond*, and beſt tract, of about 4,000,000 acres, lying between Penobſcot and Kennebeck rivers---The *third*, firſt ſettled and moſt populous at preſent, weſt of Kennebeck river, containing alſo about 4,000,000 acres.

The climate does not materially differ from the reſt of New England. The weather is more regular in the winter, which uſually laſts, with ſeverity, from the middle of December to the laſt of March; during this time the ponds and freſh water rivers are paſſable on the ice, and ſleighing continues uninterrupted by thaws, which are common in the three ſouthern New England States. Although vegetation in the ſpring commences earlier in theſe States than in the diſtrict of Main, yet in the latter it is much more rapid. The elevation of the lands in general---the purity of the air, which is rendered ſweet and ſalubrious by the balſamic qualities of many of the foreſt trees---the limpid ſtreams, both large and ſmall, which abundantly water this country, and the regularity of the weather, all unite to render this one of the healthieſt countries in the world.

Rivers, Lakes, &c.] This diſtrict has a ſeaſt coaſt of about 240 miles, in which diſtance there is an abundance of ſafe and commodious harbours; beſides which there is a ſecurity given to navigation, on ſome part of the coaſt, by what is called the *inland paſſage*. Almoſt the whole coaſt is lined with iſlands, among which veſſels may generally anchor with ſafety.

The country of which we are ſpeaking, is watered by many large and ſmall rivers. The principal are the following, as you proceed from eaſt to weſt. St. Croix, a ſhort river, iſſuing from a large pond in the vicinity of St. John's river, remarkable only for its forming a part of the eaſtern boundary of the United States. Next is Paſſamaquaddy river, which, with the Schoodiac from the weſt, falls by one mouth into Paſſamaquaddy Bay. Oppoſite Mount Deſert Iſland, which is about 15 miles long and 12 broad, Union river empties into a large bay. A ſhort diſtance weſt is the noble Penobſcot, which riſes in two branches from the highlands. Between the ſource of the weſt fork, and its junction with the eaſt, is Mooſehead Lake, 30 or 40 miles long and 15 wide. The eaſtern branch paſſes through ſeveral ſmaller lakes. From *The Forks*, as they are called, the Penobſcot Indians paſs to Canada, up either branch, principally the weſt, the ſource of which they ſay is not more than 20 miles from the waters that empty into the river St. Lawrence. At the Forks is a remarkable high mountain. From the Forks down to Indian Old Town, ſituated on an iſland in this river, is about 60 miles, 40 of which the water flows in a ſtill, ſmooth ſtream, and in the whole diſtance there are no falls to interrupt the paſſing of boats. In this diſtance,

the river widens, and embraces a large number of ſmall iſlands; and about half way receives two conſiderable tributary ſtreams, one from the eaſt and the other from the weſt, whoſe mouths are nearly oppoſite each other. About 60 rods below Indian Old Town are the Great Falls, where is a carrying-place of about 20 rods; thence, 12 miles to the head of the tide, there are no falls to obſtruct boats. Veſſels of 30 tons, come within a mile of the head of the tide. Thence, 35 miles to the head of the bay, to the ſite of Old Fort Pownal, the river is remarkably ſtraight, and eaſily navigated. Paſſing by Majabagaduſe on the eaſt, 7 miles, and Owl's Head, 20 miles further, on the weſt, you enter the ocean.

Proceeding weſtward, over ſeveral ſmall creeks, you come to Kennebeck, one of the fineſt rivers in this country. One branch of it riſes in the highlands, a ſhort diſtance from a branch of the Chaudiere, which empties into the St. Lawrence; another branch riſes in Mooſe Head Lake. In its courſe, it receives Sandy river from the weſt, and Sebaſticook and ſeveral others from the eaſt, and paſſes to the ſea by Cape Small Point. It is navigable for veſſels of 150 tons upwards of 40 miles from the ſea.

Sheepſcut river is navigable 20 or 30 miles, and empties into the ocean a little to the eaſt of Kennebeck. On this river is the important port of Wiſcaſſet, in the townſhip of Pownalborough.

Ameriſcoggin, now more generally called Androſcoggin, properly ſpeaking, is but the main weſtern branch of the Kennebeck. Its ſources are north of Lake Umbagog---Its courſe is ſouthwardly, till it approaches near the White Mountains, from which it receives Mooſe and Peabody rivers, and then turns to the eaſt, and then ſouth-eaſt, in which courſe it paſſes within two miles of the ſea-coaſt, and turning north runs over Pejepſkaeg, falls into Merry Meeting Bay, where it forms a junction with the Kennebeck, 20 miles from the ſea. Formerly, from this bay to the ſea, the confluent ſtream was called Saggadahock. The lands on this river are very good. Steven's river heads within a mile of Merry Meeting Bay. A canal, uniting theſe waters, has lately been opened. Cuſſen's river is between Freeport and North Yarmouth. Royal's river empties itſelf into the ſea in North Yarmouth. Preſumſcut is fed by Sebacook Lake, and meets the ſea at Falmouth. Noneſuch river paſſes to ſea through Scarborough. It receives its name from its extraordinary freſhets.

Saco river is one of the three largeſt rivers in this diſtrict. The principal part of its water falls from the White Mountains. Its courſe, ſome diſtance from its ſource, is ſouthwardly; it then ſuddenly bends to the eaſt, and croſſes into the diſtrict of Main, and then makes a large bend to the north-eaſt, eaſt, and ſouth-weſt, embracing the fine townſhip of Fryeburg, in the county of York. Its general courſe thence to the ſea is S. E. Great and Little Oſſapee rivers fall into it from the weſt. This river is navigable for ſhips to Saco Falls, about ſix miles from the ſea. Here the river is broken by Indian Iſland, over which is the Poſt-road. A bridge is thrown over each of the branches. A number of mills are erected here, to which logs are floated from 40 or 50 miles above; and veſſels can come quite to the mills to take in the lumber. Four million feet of pine boards were annually ſawed at theſe mills before the war. Biddeford and Pepperill-borough lie on either ſide of the mouth of this river. Mouſom, York, and Cape Neddock rivers, in the county of York, are ſhort and inconſiderable ſtreams.

We have already mentioned the moſt conſiderable lakes, which are known in this diſtrict. Lake Sebacook, 18 miles N. W. of Portland, in extent is equal to two large

townſhips, and is connected with Long Pond, on the N. W. by Sungo river. The whole extent of theſe waters is nearly 30 miles N. W. and S. E.

Bays and Capes.] The principal bays are, Paſſamaquaddy, Machias, Penobſcot, Caſco, and Wells. Of theſe, Penobſcot and Caſco are the moſt remarkable. Both are full of iſlands, ſome of which are large enough for townſhips. Long Iſland, in the center of Penobſcot Bay, is 15 miles in length, and from 2 to 3 in breadth, and forms an incorporated townſhip, by the name of Iſleſborough, containing about 400 inhabitants. On a fine peninſula on the eaſt ſide of the bay the Britiſh built a fort and made a ſettlement, which is now the ſhire town in the county of Hancock. The points of Caſco Bay are, Cape Small Point on the eaſt, and Cape Elizabeth on the weſt. This bay is about 25 miles wide, and 14 deep, forming a moſt excellent harbour for veſſels of any burden, and interſperſed with a multitude of iſlands, ſome of which are nearly large enough for townſhips. Wells' Bay lies between Cape Porpoiſe and Cape Neddock.

Productions.] The ſoil of this country in general, where it is properly fitted to receive the ſeed, appears to be very friendly to the growth of wheat, rye, barley, oats, peas, hemp, flax, as well as for the production of almoſt all kinds of culinary roots and plants, and for Engliſh graſs; and alſo for Indian corn, provided the ſeed be procured from a more northern climate. Hops are the ſpontaneous growth of this country. It is yet problematical, whether apple and other fruit-trees will flouriſh in the northern and eaſtern parts of this diſtrict. It is ſaid, however, that a century ago, there were good orchards within the county of Waſhington, about the Bay of Paſſamaquaddy, which were deſtroyed after Colonel Church broke up the French ſettlements at that place. From ſome experiments of the preſent inhabitants, the preſumption is rather againſt the growth of fruit-trees. In the counties of York and Cumberland, fruit is as plenty as in New Hampſhire. This country is equally good for grazing as for tillage, and large ſtocks of neat cattle may be fed both ſummer and winter.

The natural growth of this country conſiſts of white pine and ſpruce trees in large quantities, ſuitable for maſts, boards, and ſhingles: the white pine is, perhaps, of all others, the moſt uſeful and important; no wood will ſupply its place in building. Maple, beech, white and grey oak, and yellow birch, are the growth of this country. The birch is a large ſightly tree, and is uſed for cabinet-work, and receives a poliſh little inferior to mahogany. The outer bark, which conſiſts of a great number of layers, when ſeparated, is as ſmooth and ſoft as the beſt writing-paper, and in ſome caſes is a tolerable ſubſtitute for it. The low lands produce fir. This tree is fit neither for timber nor fuel; but it yields a balſam that is highly prized. This balſam is contained in ſmall protuberances like bliſters, under the ſmooth bark of the tree. The fir is an evergreen, reſembling the ſpruce, but very tapering, and neither tall nor large.

Under this article the following remarks of General Lincoln merit a place:

"From the different rivers, in this eaſtern country, waters may be drawn for mills, and all water work; beſides, many are the advantages which ariſe to a country, through which ſtreams of water are ſo liberally interſperſed, as they are in this; and eſpecially when they abound, as many of theſe do, with fiſh of different kinds; among them are the ſalmon, ſhad, alewive, and others, which ſeek the quiet waters of the lakes, as the only places in which they can with ſafety lodge their ſpawns. From this ſource, the inland country may draw a ſupply of fiſh, equal to all their demands, (if they are not interrupted in their paſſage,) which are rendered peculiarly valuable,

valuable, as their annual return is at a ſeaſon of the year when moſt needed, and when they can be cured with a very little ſalt; ſo that a long and free uſe of them will not be injurious to the health of the inhabitants. The certainty of the ſupply adds to its value. Theſe fiſh, as is ſuppoſed, and of which there cannot, I think, be a doubt, return to the ſame waters yearly, in which they were ſpawned, unleſs ſome natural obſtruction be thrown in their way. Whilſt the people inland may be ſupplied with theſe fiſh, the inhabitants of the ſea-coaſt may be ſupplied with the cod and other ground fiſh, which are allured quite into their harbours, in purſuit of the river fiſh, and may be taken with the greateſt eaſe, as no other craft is neceſſary in many places than a common canoe. Great advantages ariſe alſo to thoſe who live on the ſea-coaſt, from the ſhell-fiſh, viz. the lobſter, the ſcollop, and the clam. To theſe advantages may be added, thoſe which ariſe from the foreſts being filled with the mooſe and deer, and the waters being covered with wild fowls of different kinds."

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] From the firſt ſettlement of Main, until the year 1774 or 1775, the inhabitants generally followed the lumber trade to the neglect of agriculture. This afforded an immediate profit. Large quantities of corn and other grain were annually imported from Boſton and other places, without which it was ſuppoſed the inhabitants could not have ſubſiſted. But the late war, by rendering theſe reſources precarious, put the inhabitants upon their true intereſt, i. e. the cultivation of their lands. The inhabitants now raiſe a ſufficient quantity for their own conſumption; though too many are ſtill more fond of the axe than of the plough. Their wool and flax are very good;---hemp has lately been tried with great ſucceſs. Almoſt every family manufacture wool and flax into cloth, and make huſbandry utenſils of every kind for their own uſe.

EXPORTS.] This country abounds with lumber of various kinds, ſuch as maſts, which of late, however, have become ſcarce; white pine boards, ſhip timber, and every ſpecies of ſplit lumber manufactured from pine and oak; theſe are exported from the different ports in immenſe quantities. Dried fiſh furniſhes a capital article of export.

MINERALS.] Mountain and bog iron ore are found in ſome parts, and works have been erected for its manufacture.

There is a ſpecies of ſtone in Lebanon, in the county of York, which yields copperas and ſulphur.

STATE OF LITERATURE.] The erection of a college near Caſco Bay is contemplated, and the legiſlature have proceeded ſo far in the buſineſs, as to determine on the principles of ſuch an eſtabliſhment. Academies in Hallowell, Berwick, Fryeburg, and Machias, have been incorporated by the legiſlature, and endowed with handſome grants of the public lands. And it is but juſt to obſerve, that town-ſchools are very generally maintained in moſt of the towns that are able to defray the expence, and a ſpirit of improvement is increaſing.

CHIEF TOWNS.] Portland is the capital of the diſtrict of Main. It is ſituated on a promontory in Caſco Bay, and was formerly a part of Falmouth. In July 1786, this part of the town being the moſt populous and mercantile, and ſituated on the harbour, together with the iſlands which belong to Falmouth, was incorporated by the name of Portland. It has a moſt excellent, ſafe, and capacious harbour, which is ſeldom or never completely frozen over. It is near the Main Ocean, and is eaſy of acceſs. The inhabitants carry on a conſiderable foreign trade, build ſhips, and are largely concerned in the fiſhery. It is one of the moſt thriving commercial towns in the commonwealth of Maſſachuſetts. Although three fourths of it was laid in aſhes

by

by the Britiſh fleet in 1775, it has ſince been entirely rebuilt, and contains about 2300 inhabitants. Among its public buildings are three churches, two for Congregationaliſts, and one for Epiſcopalians; and a handſome court-houſe.

A light-houſe has lately been erected on a point of land called Portland Head, at the entrance of the harbour. It is a ſtone edifice, 72 feet high, excluſive of the lanthorn.

York is 74 miles N. E. from Boſton, and 9 from Portſmouth. It is divided into two pariſhes of Congregationaliſts. York River, which is navigable for veſſels of 250 tons 6 or 7 miles from the ſea, paſſes through the town. Over this river, about a mile from the ſea, a wooden bridge was built in 1761, 270 feet long, excluſive of the wharves at each end, which reach to the channel, and 25 feet wide. The bridge ſtands on thirteen piers; and was planned and conducted by Major Samuel Sewall, an ingenious mechanic, and a native of the town. The model of Charles river bridge was taken from this, and was built under the ſuperintendance of the ſame gentleman. It has alſo ſerved as the model of Malden and Beverly bridges, and has been imitated, even in Europe, by thoſe ingenious American artiſts, Meſſieurs Coxe and Thompſon.

This town was ſettled as early as 1630, and was then called Agamenticus, from a remarkable high hill in it of that name, a noted land mark for mariners. It is in lat. 43° 16′.

About the year 1640, a great part of this town was incorporated by Sir Ferdinando Gorges, by the name of Georgiana. He appointed a Mayor and Aldermen, and made it a free port. In 1652, when it fell under the juriſdiction of Maſſachuſetts, it aſſumed the name of York, which it has ſince retained.

Hallowell is a very flouriſhing town, ſituated in latitude 44° 40′, at the head of the tide waters on Kennebeck river. Pownalborough, Penobſcot, and Machias, are alſo towns of conſiderable and increaſing importance. Bangor, ſituated at the head of the tide waters on Penobſcot river, latitude 45°, it is thought will in a few years become a place of very conſiderable trade. The other towns of conſideration are, Kittery, Wells, Biddeford, Berwick, North Yarmouth, and Waldoborough.

Population, Character, and Religion.] For the firſt of theſe articles, ſee the table of diviſions. There are no peculiar features in the character of the people of this diſtrict, to diſtinguiſh them from their neighbours in New Hampſhire and Vermont. Placed as they are in like circumſtances, they are like them, a brave, hardy, enterpriſing, induſtrious, hoſpitable people. The prevailing religious denominations are Congregationaliſts and Baptiſts; there are a few Epiſcopalians and Roman Catholics.

Indians.] The remains of the Penobſcot tribe are the only Indians who take up their reſidence in this diſtrict. They conſiſt of about 100 families, and live together in regular ſociety at Indian Old Town, which is ſituated on an iſland of about 200 acres, in Penobſcot river, juſt above the Great Falls. They are Roman Catholics, and have a prieſt, who reſides among them, and adminiſters the ordinances. They have a decent houſe for public worſhip, with a bell, and another building, where they meet to tranſact the public buſineſs of their tribe. In their aſſemblies all things are managed with the greateſt order and decorum. The Sachems form the legiſlative and executive authority of the tribe; though the heads of all the families are invited to be preſent at their periodical public meetings. The tribe is increaſing, in conſequence of an obligation laid, by the Sachems, on the young people, to marry early.

In

In a former war, this tribe loſt their lands; but, at the commencement of the laſt war, the Provincial Congreſs granted them all the lands from the head of the tide in Penobſcot river, included in lines drawn ſix miles from the river on each ſide, i. e. a tract, twelve miles wide, interſected in the middle by the river. They, however, conſider that they have a right to hunt and fiſh as far as the mouth of the bay of Penobſcot extends. This was their original right, in oppoſition to any other tribe, and they now occupy it.

CONSTITUTION.] The ſame as Maſſachuſetts.

HISTORY.] The firſt attempt to ſettle this country was made in 1607, on the weſt ſide of Kennebeck, near the ſea. No permanent ſettlement, however, was at this time effected. It does not appear that any further attempts were made until between the years 1620 and 1630.

The Dutch formerly had a ſettlement at the place, which is now called Newcaſtle, which was under the juriſdiction of the governor of New York, then called Manhadoes. The town was built on a beautiful neck of land, where rows of old cellars are now to be ſeen.

In 1635, Sir Ferdinando Gorges obtained a grant from the Council of Plymouth, of the tract of country between the rivers Paſcataqua and Saggadahock, or Kennebeck; and up Kennebeck ſo far as to form a ſquare of 120 miles. It is ſuppoſed that Sir Ferdinand firſt inſtituted government in this province.

In 1639, Gorges obtained from the Crown a charter of the ſoil and juriſdiction, containing as ample powers, perhaps, as the King of England ever granted to any ſubject.

In the ſame year he appointed a governor and council, and they adminiſtered juſtice to the ſettlers until about the year 1647, when hearing of the death of Gorges, they ſuppoſed their authority ceaſed; and the people on the ſpot univerſally combined and agreed to be under civil government, and to elect their officers annually.

Government was adminiſtered in this form until 1652, when the inhabitants ſubmitted to the Maſſachuſetts, who, by a new conſtruction of their charter, which was given to Roſſwell and others in 1628, claimed the ſoil and juriſdiction of the province of Main, as far as the middle of Caſco Bay. Main then firſt took the name of Yorkſhire; and county courts were held in the manner they were in Maſſachuſetts, and the towns had liberty to ſend their deputies to the general court at Boſton.

In 1691, by charter from William and Mary, the province of Main, and the large territory eaſtward, extending to Nova Scotia, was incorporated with the Maſſachuſetts Bay; ſince which it has been governed, and courts held as in other parts of the Maſſachuſetts.

The ſeparation of this diſtrict from Maſſachuſetts, and its erection into an independent State, have been ſubjects diſcuſſed by the inhabitants in town meeting, by the appointment of the legiſlature. Such is the rapid ſettlement and growth of this country, that the period when this contemplated ſeparation will take place is probably not far diſtant.

For the beſt hiſtorical account of this diſtrict, the reader is referred to "Memoirs of Sir Ferdinando Gorges," by the Rev. Dr. Belknap, publiſhed in the Columbian Magazine for 1788---and to Hutchinſon's Hiſtory of Maſſachuſetts.

MASSACHUSETTS.

Situation and Extent.

Miles.			Sq. Miles.
Length 125 Breadth 50	between	1° 30′ and 5° 40′ E. Long. 41° 30′ and 43° N. Lat.	6250

Boundaries.] BOUNDED north, by Vermont and New Hampſhire; eaſt, by the Atlantic Ocean; ſouth, by the Atlantic, Rhode Iſland and Connecticut; weſt, by New York.

Divisions.] This part of Maſſachuſetts is divided into the following counties:

Counties.	*No. Towns.*	*No. Hou.*	*No. Fam.*	*No. Inha.*	*Ch. Towns.*	*No. Inh.*
Suffolk	23	6355	8038	44875	Boston	18038
Eſſex	22	7644	10883	57913	Salem Newbury Port	7921 4837
Middleſex	41	5998	7580	42737	Charleſtown Concord	1583 1590
Hampſhire	60	9181	9617	59681	Northampton Springfield	1628 1574
Plymouth	15	4240	5173	29535	Plymouth	2995
Briſtol	15	4514	5441	31709	Taunton	3804
Barnſtable	10	2343	2889	17354	Barnſtable	2610
Duke's	3	1013	558	3265	Edgartown	1352
Nantucket	1		872	4620	Sherburne	4620
Worceſter	49	8613	9729	56807	Worceſter	2095
Berkſhire	26	4476	4899	330291	Stockbridge Great Barrington	1336 1373
Eleven counties	265	54377	65779	378787	Population for every ſquare mile 60.	

Climate.] See New England.

Rivers.] Houſatonick river riſes from ſeveral ſources in the weſtern parts of this State, and flows ſoutherly through Connecticut into Long Iſland Sound. Deerfield river falls into Connecticut river, from the weſt, between Deerfield and Greenfield. A moſt excellent and beautiful tract of meadow lies on its banks. Weſtfield river empties into the Connecticut at Weſt Springfield. Connecticut river paſſes through this State, and interſects the county of Hampſhire: in its courſe it runs over falls above Deerfield, and between Northampton and Springfield. A company, by the name of "The Proprietors of the Locks and Canals on Connecticut river," was incorporated by the General Court in 1792, for the purpoſe of rendering Connecticut river paſſable for boats and other things, from Chicapee river northward to New Hampſhire. Miller's and Chicapee rivers fall into Connecticut on the eaſt ſide; the former at Northfield, the latter at Springfield.

In the eaſtern part of the State is Merrimack, which we have already in part deſcribed. It is navigable for veſſels of burden about twenty miles from its mouth, where

it is obſtructed by the firſt falls, or rapids, called Mitchell's Eddy, between Bradford and Haverhill. Vaſt quantities of ſhip timber, ranging timber, plank, deals, clapboards, ſhingles, ſtaves, and other lumber, are brought down in raſts, ſo conſtructed, as to paſs all the falls in the river except thoſe of Amüſkaeg and Pautucket. In the ſpring and ſummer conſiderable quantities of ſalmon, ſhad, and alewives are caught, which are either uſed as bait in the cod fiſhery, or pickled and ſhipped to the Weſt Indies. There are twelve ferries acroſs this river in the county of Eſſex. The bar acroſs the mouth of this river is a very great incumbrance to the navigation, and is eſpecially terrible to ſtrangers. There are 16 feet water upon it at common tides. In 1787 the general court granted a ſum of money for the erection of two ſufficient light houſes, and made the maintenance of them a public charge. The houſes are of wood, and contrived to be removed at pleaſure, ſo as to be always conformed to the ſhifting of the bar; and thus the ſingle rule of bringing them in a line will be the only neceſſary direction for veſſels approaching the harbour, and by this direction they may ſail with ſafety, until they are abreaſt of the lights, where is a bold ſhore and good anchoring ground. The bridges over this river will be mentioned under that head.

Naſhua, Concord, and Shawſheen rivers, riſe in this State, and run a north-eaſterly courſe into the Merrimack. Parker's river takes its riſe in Rowley, and, after a courſe of a few miles, paſſes into the Sound which ſeparates Plumb Iſland from the main land. It is navigable about two miles from its mouth. Ipſwich and Chebacco rivers paſs through the town of Ipſwich into Ipſwich Bay. Miſtick river falls into Boſton Harbour, eaſt of the peninſula of Charleſtown: it is navigable three miles to Medford.

Charles river is a conſiderable ſtream, the principal branch of which riſes from a pond bordering on Hopkinton: it paſſes through Holliſton and Bellingham, and divides Medway from Medfield, Wrentham and Franklin, and thence into Dedham, where, by a curious bend, it forms a peninſula of 900 acres of land. And what is very ſingular, a ſtream called Mother Brook, runs *out* of this river, in this town, and falls into Neponſet river, which anſwers to a canal uniting the two rivers, and affords a number of excellent mill ſeats. From Dedham the courſe of the river is northerly through Newton, paſſing over romantic falls—it then bends to the north-eaſt and eaſt, through Watertown and Cambridge, and paſſes into Boſton harbour, between Charleſtown and Boſton: it is navigable for boats to Watertown ſeven miles.

Neponſet river originates chiefly from Muddy and Punkapog Ponds, in Stoughton, and Maſhapog Pond in Sharon, and after paſſing over falls ſufficient to carry mills, unites with other ſmall ſtreams, and forms a very conſtant ſupply of water for the many mills ſituated on the river below, until it meets the tide in Milton, from whence it is navigable for veſſels of 150 tons burthen to the bay, diſtant about four miles. Neponſet river, from Milton to the Bay, forms a regular and beautiful ſerpentine, interſperſed with hillocks of wood ſo regularly placed, that from Milton Hill it affords one of the fineſt proſpects in the world. Paſſing Fore and Back rivers in Weymouth, you come to North river, which riſes in Indian Head Pond in Pembroke, and running in a ſerpentine courſe between Scituate and Marſhfield paſſes to the ſea. This river for its ſize is remarkable for its great depth of water, it being, in ſome places, not more than 40 or 50 feet wide, and yet veſſels of 300 tons are built at Pembroke, 18 miles (as the river runs) from its mouth. This river is navigable for boats to the firſt fall, five miles from its ſource in Indian Head Pond; thence to the neareſt waters which run into Taunton river is only three miles. A canal to connect the waters of theſe two rivers, which communicate with Narraganſet and Maſſachuſetts Bays, would be of great utility, as it would ſave a long and dangerous navigation round Cape Cod.

Taunton

Taunton river is made up of ſeveral ſtreams which unite in or near the town of Bridgwater. Its courſe is from N. E. to S. W. till it falls into Narraganſet Bay at Tiverton, oppoſite the north end of Rhode Iſland. It receives a conſiderable tributary ſtream at Taunton from the north-weſt. The head waters of Pautucket and Providence rivers, in Rhode Iſland, and of Quinnabaug and Shetucket rivers, in Connecticut, are in this State.

CAPES, BAYS, ISLANDS, &c.] The only Capes of note, on the coaſt of this State, are Cape Ann on the north ſide of Maſſachuſetts Bay, and Cape Cod on the ſouth. Cape Cod, ſo called probably from the multitudes of cod fiſh which are found on its coaſt, is the ſouth-eaſterly part of the Commonwealth of Maſſachuſetts: in ſhape it reſemble a man's arm when bended, with the hand turned inward towards the body. The Cape comprehends the county of Barnſtable, and is between 70 and 80 miles in length.

Province Town is the hook of the Cape, and is generally narrow, the wideſt place not being more than three miles in extent. The harbour, which is one of the beſt in the State, opens to the ſouthward, and has depth of water for any ſhips. *It was the firſt port entered by our forefathers when they came to ſettle in this country, in* 1620. This place has been in a ſtate of thriving and decaying many times; it is now riſing. It contains about ninety families, whoſe whole dependence is upon the ſea for their ſupport: they employ about twenty ſail of veſſels, great and ſmall, in the cod fiſhery: they have been remarkably ſucceſsful of late. Ten of their veſſels, employed in 1790 upon the Grand Bank, took eleven thouſand quintals of cod fiſh. They have not loſt a veſſel, or a man, in the buſineſs, ſince the war.

The houſes ſtand upon the inner ſide of the hook of the Cape, fronting ſouth-eaſt, and looking into the harbour: they are ſmall, one ſtory high, and ſet up on blocks or piles, that the driving ſands may paſs under them, otherwiſe they would be buried in ſand. The houſes ſtand in one range upon the beach; the flakes on which they dry their fiſh are round them. The veſſels run in upon the ſhore, which is a ſoft ſand, throw their fiſh over, where they are waſhed from the ſalt, and carried up to the flakes on hand-barrows.

They raiſe nothing from their lands, but are wholly dependent upon Boſton market, and other places, for every kind of vegetable production.

There are but two horſes, and two yoke of oxen, kept in the town: they have about fifty cows, which feed in the ſpring upon beach graſs, which grows here and there upon the ſhore; and in ſummer they feed in the ſunken ponds and marſhy places, that are found between the ſand hills. Here the cows are ſeen wading, and even ſwimming, plunging their heads into the water up to their horns, picking a ſcanty ſubſiſtence from the roots and herbs produced in the water. They are fed in the winter on ſedge cut upon the flats.

Except a border of looſe land, which runs round the whole place, it is very broken and hilly. Theſe hills are white ſand, and their produce is whortleberry buſhes, and ſmall pitch pine ſhrubs. The pines, next the village, have been much cut off for fire-wood. Cutting away the wood expoſes the hills to be torn away by the violence of the winds, and, in ſome inſtances, perſons have been obliged to remove their houſes to prevent being covered up. Theſe hills and ſand heaps are conſtantly ſhifting; and when torn away in one place, are piled up on another: it is not unfrequent to have their fiſh flakes covered with banks of ſand like ſnow. Immediately in ſtepping from any houſe, the foot ſinks in ſand to the depth of the ſhoe. The moſt ſoutherly point of this place, called Wood End, is five miles ſouth-weſt from the village. What is called Race

Point, known to all ſeamen, is the north-weſterly extremity of the Cape, and lies north-weſt from the village, diſtant three miles.

A traveller, in paſſing from the village over to Race Point, about mid-way, travels ſome diſtance through a pine wood, the trees about twenty feet in height; at length, he finds the path obſtructed with a mound of ſand, almoſt perpendicular, riſing among the trees to their tops: his horſe with difficulty mounts this precipice, his feet ſinking almoſt to the knees in the ſand. This volume of ſand is gradually rolling into the woods with the winds, and as it covers the trees to the tops, they die. As ſoon as a traveller mounts this bank, a curious ſpectacle preſents to view, a deſert of white ſand, five miles in length, parallel with the ſea, and one mile and an half in breadth. The tops of the trees appear above the ſand, but they are all dead: where they have been lately covered, the bark and twigs are ſtill remaining, from others they are fallen off; ſome have been ſo long whipped and worn out with the ſand and winds, that there is nothing remaining but the hearts and knots of the trees. But over the greater part of this deſert the trees have long ſince diſappeared.

After croſſing this wilderneſs, where the horſe ſinks to his fetlocks at every ſtep, you arrive at Race Point. Here are a number of huts erected by the perſons who come over from the village to fiſh in boats: here they keep their fiſhing apparatus and lodge. At the diſtance of fifteen rods from the Point, the water is thirty fathoms in depth, and cod, haddock, and other kinds of fiſh, are taken in plenty, whenever the weather will permit. They take many kinds of fiſh with ſeins, ſuch as pollock, mackarel, and herrings: the two latter are often taken in their harbour in great abundance. At this place, Race Point, are ſeen, at ſome times, hundreds of ſharks lying on the ſhore, which have been caught by the boats when fiſhing for cod: they weigh from three to ſix hundred weight: their livers, which produce oil, are the only parts of them of which any uſe is made. They are taken by a large hook baited with a cod fiſh, and faſtened to an iron chain with a ſwivel, to prevent them from biting or twiſting it off. When the ſhark has ſeized the hook they drag him up to the ſtern of the boat, and being too large to take on board the boats there made uſe of, they row aſhore with him, drag him up on the beach, rip him open, take out his liver, and the carcaſe is left to periſh. Fiſhing, either at ſea in veſſels, or round the ſhore in boats, is the whole employment of all the inhabitants. There is no employment but this to which they can turn their attention: and the boys, as ſoon as they have ſtrength to pull a codfiſh, are put on board a boat or a veſſel.

As this harbour is of ſo much conſequence, often affording a ſhelter from ſtorms to veſſels both inward and outward bound, it is of importance that there ſhould always be a ſettlement here. The Province formerly afforded them ſome encouragement, beſides exempting them from taxation. *That encouragement is now withholden*, and a poll-tax has been required, whether with good policy, has been doubted by many: the inhabitants complain of it, as an unreaſonable burthen. Their employment is a great public benefit, and what they acquire is through many perils and the hardeſt labour.

The extent of Cape Cod, on the outer ſhore, beginning at Wood End, round to Buzzard's Bay, or to the line between Sandwich and Wareham, is about one hundred and thirty miles. The inner ſhore on Maſſachuſetts Bay is about ſeventy-five miles. The road that is commonly travelled on to the Cape is on the inner ſide, and meaſured by this, the extent of the Cape will be as firſt mentioned. Cape Cod, in general, is a thin, barren ſoil, by far the moſt ſo of any part of New England: but the ſea air impregnates all vegetables with a quality which renders them far more nutritive to cattle, than the ſame quantity far inland; it being an undoubted fact, that cattle will do well

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in ſuch paſtures, as far up in the country would ſtarve them at once. Their ſalt hay, which is almoſt their only forage, affords a manure which is alſo far ſuperior to that which is made at a diſtance from the ſea: this greatly aſſiſts their crops of corn and rye, beyond what the land promiſes in its appearance. The lands of Cape Cod could never ſupport its inhabitants, which are nearly 17,000. A great part of the men and boys are conſtantly employed at ſea. In this buſineſs they ſupport themſelves and families; and it is obſerved, that the young people form family connections earlier in life than in any other part of the country; which, perhaps, is one evidence that the means of ſubſiſtence are eaſily obtainable. Cape Cod is a nurſery for ſeamen, and, in that view, one of the moſt important places in the State, or in America. If the cultivation of the ſea is a bleſſing to any nation, we may conſider the inhabitants of the Cape as the moſt valuable among our countrymen.

The Cape abounds with clear freſh ponds, generally ſtocked with fiſh: there is little ſunken land: the wood on the Cape is generally pitch pine: there are few or no ſtones below Barnſtable: the cellars are walled with brick, in a circular form, to prevent the looſe ſand from caving in: the wells are ſecured in the ſame manner, and they are obliged to keep them covered to prevent the ſand from blowing in and ſpoiling the water. Formerly, the inhabitants took many whales round the Capes, chiefly in Maſſachuſetts Bay; but that buſineſs is almoſt at an end. The manner of taking black fiſh is ſomewhat ſingular: they are a fiſh of the whale kind, of about five tons weight, and produce oil in the ſame manner as a whale. When a ſhoal of them is diſcovered, which ſometimes conſiſts of ſeveral hundreds, the inhabitants put off in boats, get without them, and drive them like ſo many cattle on to the ſhore and flats, where they are left by the tide and fall an eaſy prey. The ſhore of the Cape is, in many places, covered with the huge bones of theſe fiſh and of whales, which remain unconſumed for many years. Many perſons conjecture, that the Cape is gradually wearing away, and that it will finally fall a ſacrifice to the ravages of the winds and the ſeas, and many circumſtances favour ſuch an opinion. At Province Town harbour ſtumps of trees are ſeen, which the ſea now covers in common tides. When the Engliſh firſt ſettled upon the Cape, there was an iſland off Chatham, at three leagues diſtance, called *Webb's Iſland*, containing twenty acres, covered with red cedar or ſavin: the inhabitants of Nantucket uſed to carry wood from it. This iſland has been wholly worn away for almoſt a century. A large rock that was upon the iſland, and which ſettled as the earth waſhed away, now marks the place; it riſes as much above the bottom of the ſea, as it uſed to riſe above the ſurface of the ground: the water is ſix fathoms deep on this ſpot: and in many places on the Cape the ſea appears to be encroaching on the land.

The Cape is ſo expoſed to winds in every direction, that fruit trees do not thrive: there are few orchards of any conſequence below Barnſtable: there is not a cyder mill in the county. In many places, their foreſt trees have more the appearance of a prim hedge than of timber.

The Cape is an healthy ſituation, except for thoſe conſtitutions which are too delicate for the piercing winds that come from the ſea.

The inhabitants in general live as long as in the other parts of the northern States.

The winds, in every direction, come from the ſea; and invalids, by viſiting the Cape, ſometimes experience the ſame benefit as from going to ſea.*

The principal bays on the coaſt of Maſſachuſetts are, Ipſwich, Boſton, Plymouth, Cape Cod or Barnſtable, and Buzzard's Bays. Many iſlands are ſcattered along the coaſt,

* See Maſſachuſetts Magazine for March, 1791.

coaſt, the moſt noted of which are Plumb Iſland, which is about nine miles in length, extending from Merrimack river on the north, to the entrance of Ipſwich river on the ſouth, and is ſeparated from the main land by a narrow ſound, called Plumb Iſland river, fordable in ſeveral places at low water. It conſiſts principally of ſand, blown into curious heaps, and crowned with buſhes bearing the beach plumb. There is, however, a valuable property of ſalt marſh, and at the ſouth end of the iſland are two or three good farms: on the north end are the light-houſes before-mentioned: on the ſea ſhore of this iſland, and on Saliſbury beach, the Marine Society, and other Gentlemen of Newbury Port, have humanely erected ſeveral ſmall houſes, furniſhed with fuel and other conveniencies for the relief of mariners who may be ſhipwrecked on this coaſt.

Nantucket Iſland lies ſouth of Cape Cod: it contains, according to Douglas, 23,000 acres, including the beach. No mention is made of the diſcovery and ſettlement of this iſland, under its preſent name, by any of our hiſtorians. It is more than probable that this is the iſland which is uſually called Nautican by ancient voyagers. As the iſland is low and ſandy it is calculated only for thoſe people who are willing to depend almoſt entirely on the watery element for ſubſiſtence. The iſland of itſelf conſtitutes one county by the name of Nantucket. It has but one town, called Sherburne, containing 4620 inhabitants, and ſends one repreſentative to the General Aſembly.

The inhabitants formerly carried on the moſt conſiderable whale fiſhery on the coaſt, but the war almoſt ruined this buſineſs. They have ſince, however, revived it again, and purſue the whales, even into the Great Pacific Ocean. There is not a ſingle tree on the iſland of natural growth; they have a place called the Woods, but it has been deſtitute of trees for theſe 60 years paſt. The iſland was formerly well wooded. The people, eſpecially the females, are fondly attached to the iſland, and few wiſh to migrate to a more deſirable ſituation.

The inhabitants of this iſland are principally Quakers; there is one ſociety of Congregationaliſts. Forty years ago there were three congregations of Indians, each of which had a houſe for worſhip and a teacher: their laſt Indian paſtor died 20 years ſince, and was a worthy, reſpectable character.

Martha's Vineyard, which lies a little to the weſtward of Nantucket, is about twenty-one miles in length and four in breadth: it contains three ſocieties of Congregationaliſts at Edgarton, Tiſbury, and Chilmark, two of Baptiſts, without miniſters, and three congregations of Indians, one of which is ſupplied by an ordained Indian miniſter, and to the others, the Rev. Mr. Mayhew preaches in rotation, and ſuperintends the whole. This, and the neighbouring iſland, conſtitute Duke's county, containing 3265 inhabitants, between 400 and 500 of which are Indians and Mulattoes, ſubſiſting by agriculture and fiſhing.

Edgarton, which includes the fertile iſland of Chabaquidick, three miles long and one and a half broad, is the ſhire town. This little iſland joins to the harbour and renders it very ſecure. Gayhead, the weſternmoſt part of the iſland, containing about 2400 acres, is very good tillage land, and is wholly occupied by Indians, but not well cultivated. One-third of this tract is the property of the Engliſh ſociety for propagating the goſpel in New England. The principal productions of the iſland are corn, rye, and oats. They raiſe ſheep and cattle in conſiderable numbers. There are four mill ſtreams in Tiſbury. The inhabitants of this county ſend three repreſentatives, and, in conjunction with Nantucket, one ſenator to the General Court.

The other iſlands of conſideration are in Maſſachuſetts Bay, which is agreeably diver-

diverſified by about forty of various ſizes: ſeven of them only are within the juriſdiction of the town of Boſton, and taxed with it. Caſtle Iſland is about three miles from Boſton, and contains about 18 acres of land. The buildings are, the Governor's houſe, a magazine, gaol, barracks, and workſhops. In June, 1792, there were confined on this iſland 77 convicts, who are employed in the manufacture of nails, and guarded by a company of between 60 and 70 ſoldiers. The fort on this iſland commands the entrance of the harbour: here are mounted 50 pieces of cannon, and 44 others lie diſmounted.

Light Houses.] Within this State are the following light-houſes: on Plumb Iſland, near Newbury, are two, which we have already mentioned: on Thatcher's Iſland, off Cape Ann, two lights of equal height; another ſtands on a rock on the north ſide of the entrance of Boſton harbour, with one ſingle light: on the north point of Plymouth harbour are two lights: on a point at the entrance of the harbour on the iſland of Nantucket, is one with a ſingle light; this light may be ſeen as far as Nantucket ſhoals extend; the iſland being low, the light appears over it.

Face of the Country.] See New England. By an admeaſurement made by the barometer at Princetown, in this State, about 45 miles N. W. from Boſton, and at Cambridge, in 1777, it appears that Princetown is 1332 feet higher than the level of the ſea. The top of Wachuſet mountain in Princetown was found to be 2989 feet above the level of the ſea. A hill of this height, in a clear horizon, may be ſeen 67 miles.

Soil and Productions.] In Maſſachuſetts are to be found all the varieties of ſoil, from very good to very bad, capable of yielding all the different productions common to the climate, ſuch as Indian corn, rye, wheat, barley, oats, hemp, flax, hops, potatoes, field beans and peas—apples, pears, peaches, plums, cherries, &c. It has been obſerved, that the effects of the eaſt winds extend farther inland than formerly, and injure the tender fruits, particularly the peach, and even the more hardy apple. The average produce of the good lands, well cultivated, has been eſtimated as follows: 40 buſhels of corn on an acre—30 of barley—20 of wheat—30 of rye—100 of potatoes. The ſtaple commodities of this State are fiſh, beef, and lumber.

Commerce.] The following abſtract of goods, wares, and merchandize, exported from this State, from the firſt of October 1790, to the 31ſt of September 1791, will give the reader the beſt idea of their articles of export, and the quantity of each.

EXPORTS *from* Massachusetts, *from October* 1, 1790, *to September* 31, 1791.

Aſh, Pot	tons	783.20
----, Pearl		1,159.50
Apples	bbls.	1,131
Bricks	num.	330,250
Smiths' Bellows	do.	2
Boats	do.	75
Beer, Ale, and Porter,	gal.	15,532
Boots	pairs	339
Brimſtone	lbs.	3,280
Blacking or Lampblack,	kegs	158
Cider	bbls.	292
-----	doz.	310
Chalk	tons	10
Cotton	lbs.	13,371
Coffee	do.	68,044
Cocoa	do.	2,804
Chocolate	boxes	331
Candles---Myrtle	do.	348
Wax	do.	169
Tallow	do.	1,106
Cables and Cordage	tons	32
----------	cwt.	18
----------	coils	16
Copper---Ore	cwt.	20
Manufactured	do.	1,480
Coals	buſh.	1,548
Cranberries	do.	688
Canes and Walking-ſticks		96

EXPORTS *from* MASSACHUSETTS *continued.*

Cards, cotton & wool	doz.	25
Coaches, Chaiſes, Phaetons		16
Carts and Waggons		4
Duck, American	bolts	288
Drugs---Glauber Salts	lbs.	1,220
Saſſafras Root	tons	17
Earthen ware--Yell. or Queen's,	crates	92
Stone	doz.	25
Flaxſeed	hhds.	6,056
Flax	lbs.	2,700
Feathers	do.	100
Flints	num.	40,000
Frames of---Boats	do.	10
Houſes	do.	180
Windows & Doors	do.	30
Houſehold Furniture--		
Tables	do.	37
Deſks		23
Bureaus		16
Sophas		5
Cheſts		705
Windſor & Ruſh Chairs		54
Fiſheries---Fiſh dried	cwt.	326,560
Ditto pickled	bbls.	20,177
Oil Whale	gal.	270,810
Oil Spermaceti	do.	70,266
Sperma. Candles	boxes	2,927
Whalebone	lbs.	85,161
Genſang	lbs.	3,096
Grindſtones	num.	104
Glaſs---Ware	crates	21
Window	boxes	13
Groceries--Caſſia & Cinnam.	lbs.	1,178
Pimento	do.	5,551
Pepper	do.	92
Brown Sugar	do.	3,904
Raiſins	do.	100
Grain and Pulſe---		
Wheat	buſh.	52
Rye	do.	2,350
Barley	do.	32
Indian Corn	do.	69,064
Oats	do.	447
Peas and Beans	do.	3,746
Horns and Horntips	num.	71,281
Hats	do.	376
Hops	lbs.	650
Hay	tons	63
Iron-wrought---Axes	num.	662
Scythes	do.	48
Locks and Bolts	do.	2,000
Shovels	do.	247
Skimmers & Ladles	pr.	15
Anchors	num.	66
Muſkets	do.	60
Cutlaſſes	do.	72
Knives and Forks	do.	240
Cheſts of Carpenter's Tools		4
Iron-caſt--Pots, Kettles, &c.	do.	702
Cannon	do.	25
Shot for Cannon	do.	1,000
Iron the ton---Pig	tons	173½
Bar	do.	36.18
Nail Rods	do.	1
Hoops	do.	1
Indigo	lbs.	1,238
Leather, tann'd & dreſs'd	do.	1,240
--------	ſides	19
Lime	buſh.	456
Shot	lbs.	2,553
Live Stock---		
Horned Cattle	num.	652
Horſes	do.	324
Sheep	do.	5,140
Hogs	do.	619
Poultry	doz.	999
Merchandize foreign	packages	179
Molaſſes	gal.	11,421
Millſtones	num.	
Muſtard	lbs.	780
Madder	do.	1,034
Nails	do.	20,000
Nankeens	num. of pieces	3,594
Nuts	buſh.	692
Naval Stores---Pitch	bbls.	552
Tar	do.	2,824
Turpentine	do.	4,266
Roſin	do.	23
Oil, Linſeed	gal.	90
Powder, Gun	lbs.	13,814
--------, Hair	do.	166
Pomatum	do.	45
Paints	do.	840
Proviſions---Rice	tierces	810
Flour	lbs.	21,236
Ship Stuff	do.	214

EXPORTS

EXPORTS *from* MASSACHUSETTS *continued.*

Provisions---Indian Meal	blbs.	7,000
Rye ditto	do.	252
Bread	do.	2,285
Beef	do.	30,499
Pork	do.	3,174
Crackers	kegs	1,812
Hams and Bacon	lbs.	36,946
Veniſon & Mutton Hams	do.	200
Cheeſe	do.	23,155
Lard	do.	4,860
Butter	firkin	3,873
Sauſages	blbs.	250
Freſh Beef	do.	92,269
------ Pork	do.	29,334
Carcaſes of Mutton	num.	561
Neats Tongues	lbs.	154
Oyſters, Pickled	kegs	214
Potatoes	buſh.	3,808
Onions	do.	5,497
Spirits---Rum, American	gal.	298,357
------, Weſt India	do.	2,734
Brandy	do.	188
Gin	caſes	2,113
Cordials	do.	69
Sadlery---Saddles & Bridles	num.	70
Carriage Harneſs	ſets	14
Shoes	pairs	3,400
Soap	boxes	479
Snuff	lbs.	1,939
Steel	bundles	27
Spruce, Eſſence of	caſes	31
Salt	buſh.	3,647
Seeds, Hay	lbs.	60
Skins and Furs---		
Morocco	num.	132
Calf in Hair	do.	290
Deer and Mooſe	do.	962
Bears, &c.	do.	24
Deer & other Skins unknown, hhds. caſks, and packages		56
Tobacco	hhds.	1,190
Ditto, manufactured	lbs.	71,108
Tallow	do.	275,641
Twine	cwt.	1,900
Tow Cloth	yards	4,548
Toys for Children	doz.	12½
Tin manufactured	doz.	14
Teas---Bohea	cheſts	6½
Souchong	do.	108½
Green	do.	178
Hyſon	do.	628½
Vinegar	gal.	2,098
Wines---Madeira	do.	4,622
Other Wines	do.	3,940
Bottled	doz.	6
Wax Bees	lbs.	10,254
Myrtle	do.	1,946
Whips	num.	144
Wood---Stav. & Head.	num.	5,456,041
Shingles	do.	12,325,600
Shooks & Caſks	do.	29,895
Laths	do.	15,500
Hoops & Hop-poles	do.	511,764
Maſts		219
Bowſprits		42
Booms		74
Spars		3,243
Handſpikes		13,126
Pumps		23
Boxes and Brakes		56
Blocks		5,162
Oars and Raſters		33,920
Trunnels		35,905
Cedar and Oak Knees		1,051
Carvings		13
Anchor Stocks		375
Oak Boards & Planks, feet		568,565
Pine Boards & Planks	do.	21,136,101
Other ditto	do.	3,448,369
Scantling		516,681
Oak and Pine Timber		68,238
Oak & Pine ditto	tons	13,366
Oak Pine	pieces	6,436
Oak, Pine, & Hic'ry	cords	494
Oak Bark	do.	13
Oak ditto ground	hhds.	6
Maſt Hoops	doz.	110
Yokes for Oxen		96

Beſides a variety of ſmaller articles.

Value of Goods, Wares, and Merchandiſe, exported from Maſſachuſetts in the above-mentioned year,

Dolls.	*Ct.*
2,445,975.	53

It muſt be noted, that the foregoing abſtract comprehends thoſe articles only which were exported to foreign ports; the domeſtic trade is not taken into the account. Shoes, cards, hats, ſaddlery, and various other manufactures, and ſeveral articles of the produce of the country, to a great amount, were the ſame year exported to the ſouthern States.

This State owns more than three times as many tons of ſhipping as any other of the States, and more than one third part of the whole that belongs to the United States.* Upwards of 29,000 tons are employed in carrying on the fiſheries; 46,000 in the coaſting buſineſs, and 96,564 in trading with almoſt all parts of the world. Pot and pearl aſh, ſtaves, flax-ſeed, bees-wax, &c. are carried chiefly to Great Britain, in remittance for their manufactures; maſts and proviſions to the Eaſt Indies; fiſh, oil, beef, pork, lumber, candles, &c. are carried to the Weſt Indies, for their produce, and the two firſt articles, fiſh and oil, to France, Spain, and Portugal; roots, vegetables, fruits, and ſmall meats, to Nova Scotia and New Brunſwick; hats, ſaddlery, cabinet-work, men's and women's ſhoes, nails, tow-cloth, barley, hops, butter, cheeſe, &c. to the ſouthern States. The *Negro* trade was prohibited by law in 1778, and there is not a ſingle *ſlave* belonging to the Commonwealth.

MANUFACTURES.] If we except printing types, ſtone wares, pitch, tar and turpentine, and wine, moſt if not all the other articles enumerated in pages 204 and 205, are manufactured in a greater or leſs degree in this State. There is a duck manufactory at Boſton, from which 1700 bolts, of 40 yards each, ſaid to be the beſt duck ever before ſeen in America, have been ſold in one year. Manufactories of this kind have been begun in Salem, Haverhill, and Springfield, and are ſaid to be in a promiſing way. Manufactories of cotton goods have been eſtabliſhed at Beverley and Worceſter; and much credit is due to the patriotic gentlemen who began them; although by their perſevering exertions, they have not been able to ſurmount the various obſtacles in the way of ſucceſs. At Taunton, Bridgewater, Middleborough, and ſome other places, nails have been made in ſuch quantities as to prevent, in a great meaſure, the importation of them from Great Britain. In this State there are thirteen paper mills, five on Neponſet river, five on Charles river, one at Andover, on Shawſheen river, one at Springfield, and the other at Sutton, in Worceſter county. Ten of theſe mills have two vats each, and when in action, employ ten men, and as many girls and boys, and produce at the rate of 60,000 reams of writing, printing, and wrapping paper, annually. It is eſtimated that *twenty thouſand pounds* worth of paper is yearly made by theſe mills; and the quantity is annually and rapidly increaſing.

The principal card manufactory is in Boſton, and belongs to Mr. Giles Richards, and Co. in which are made yearly about 7000 dozen of cotton and wool cards, of the various kinds or numbers, which conſume about a hundred caſks of wire, averaged at 30l. a caſk, and about 20,000 tanned calf, ſheep, and lamb ſkins, at 2s. each. The ſticking of theſe cards employs not leſs than 1000 people, chiefly children, and about ſixty men are fully occupied in manufacturing card boards, card tacks, and finiſhing the cards. It is eſtimated that about 2000 dozen cards are made at the other manufactories in different parts of the State.

The ſeat of the *ſhoe manufacture* is at Lynn, eight miles to the northward of Boſton, in the County of Eſſex. It is not eaſy to fix the number of ſhoes annually made by the induſtrious inhabitants of this town, but it has been eſtimated by thoſe moſt competent to form an accurate judgement, that, beſides the home conſumption, and the large numbers ſent every week to Boſton and other places, ſeveral hundred thouſand

* See page 200.

pair

pair are ſhipped to the different parts of the United States. One man, Mr. B. Johnſon, from his own workſhop, in the courſe of ſeven months, ſhipped 20,600 pair of ſhoes, valued at 4,979l. 6s. excluſive of large numbers ſold in the vicinity.

Silk and thread lace, of an elegant texture, are manufactured by women and children, in large quantities, in the town of Ipſwich, in Eſſex County, and ſold for uſe and exportation in Boſton, and other mercantile towns. This manufacture, if properly regulated and encouraged, might be productive of great and extenſive advantages. In the year 1790, no leſs than 41,979 yards were made in this town; and the quantity, it is ſuppoſed, has ſince been conſiderably increaſed.

A wire manufactory has lately been erected at a conſiderable expence in Dedham, in Suffolk County, for the purpoſe of drawing wire for the uſe of the fiſh-hook and card manufacturers in Boſton. The eſſays which have already been made promiſe ſucceſs.

There are ſeveral ſnuff, oil, chocolate, and powder mills in different parts of the State; and a number of iron works and ſlitting mills, beſides other mills, in common uſe, in great abundance, for ſawing lumber, grinding grain, and fulling cloth.

There are 62 diſtilleries in this State, employed in diſtilling from foreign materials. In theſe diſtilleries are 158 ſtills, which together contain 102,173 gallons. Beſides theſe, there are twelve country ſtills employed in diſtilling domeſtic materials; but theſe are ſmall, and the moſt of them very lately erected, and ſome have never yet been worked. One million nine hundred thouſand gallons have been diſtilled in one year, which, at a duty of eleven cents a gallon, yields a revenue to the government of 209,000 dollars.

A brick pyramidical glaſs-houſe was erected in Boſton by a company of gentlemen in 1789; but for want of workmen ſkilled in the buſineſs, their works were not put in operation effectually till November 1792; and although ſeveral of the firſt eſſays or meltings proved unſucceſsful, later eſſays gives the fulleſt ground to believe that this very important manufacture may be proſecuted to the advantage of the proprietors, as well as to the great benefit of the public. From the ſpecimens of glaſs exhibited, it appears to be of the beſt quality for clearneſs and goodneſs; and as there is an abundance of the material for this manufacture at command, there can be little doubt of its being carried to ſuch an extent, in the courſe of a few years, as to preclude foreign importations, which will make a vaſt ſaving to our country. Every friend to his country muſt wiſh that the patriotic company which have eſtabliſhed this manufacture, might meet with ſuch ſucceſs as to have their expenſes reimburſed, which have already exceeded the ſum of 16,000 dollars.

Bridges and Canals.] The bridges that merit notice in this State are the following, viz. Charles river bridge, built in 1786-7, 1503 feet long, and connecting Boſton and Charleſtown. It is built on 75 piers, with a convenient draw in the middle, for the paſſage of veſſels. Each pier is compoſed of ſeven ſticks of oak timber, united by a cap piece, ſtrong braces and girts, and afterwards driven into the bed of the river, and firmly ſecured by a ſingle pile on each ſide, driven obliquely to a ſolid bottom. The piers are connected to each other by large ſtring pieces, which are covered with four inch plank. The bridge is 43 feet in width, and on each ſide is accommodated with a paſſage ſix feet wide, railed in for the ſafety of people on foot. The bridge has a gradual riſe from each end, ſo as to be two feet higher in the middle than at the extremities. Forty elegant lamps are erected, at a ſuitable diſtance from each other, to illuminate it when neceſſary. There are four ſtrong ſtone wharves connected with three piers each, ſunk in various parts of the river. The machinery of the draw is

ſimple, and requires but two men to raiſe it. At the higheſt tides the water riſes twelve or fourteen feet; the floor of the bridge is then about four feet above the water. The depth of the water in the channel at low tide is twenty-ſeven feet. This bridge was completed in thirteen months; and while it exhibits the greateſt effect of private enterprize of this kind in the United States, it being the firſt bridge of conſiderable magnitude that has been erected, preſents a moſt pleaſing proof, how certainly objects of magnitude may be attained by ſpirited exertions.

The ſucceſs which attended this experiment led others to engage in ſimilar works of enterprize. Malden bridge acroſs Myſtic river, connecting Charleſtown with Malden, was begun in April 1787, and was opened for paſſengers the September following. This bridge, including the abutments, is 2420 feet long, and 32 feet wide, it has a draw 30 feet wide. The deepeſt water at full tide is 23 feet. The expenſe of this bridge was eſtimated at 5300l.

Eſſex bridge, upwards of 1500 feet in length, with a well-contrived draw, was erected in 1789, and connects Salem with Beverly. The expenſe of this bridge is ſaid not to have exceeded one third part of that of Charles river bridge, yet it is eſteemed quite equal in ſtrength, and is thought by travellers to be ſuperior in point of beauty.

In Rowley, on the poſt road between Boſton and Newburyport, is a bridge acroſs Parker's river 870 feet long, and 26 feet wide, conſiſting of nine ſolid piers and eight wooden arches. This bridge was built in the year 1758.

A bridge over Merrimack river, in the county of Eſſex, about two miles above Newburyport, is nearly completed. At the place where the bridge is erected, an iſland divides the river into two branches. An arch of 160 feet diameter and 40 feet above the level of high water, connects this iſland with the main on one ſide; the channel on the other ſide is wider, but the center arch is but 140 feet diameter. Greater ingenuity is diſcovered in the conſtruction of this bridge, than in any that have hitherto been built; and it is one among the vaſt number of ſtupendous and uſeful works which owe their origin to that confidence between man and man, which has been created or reſtored by the meaſures of the general government.

Another ingeniouſly conſtructed bridge has lately been completed over this river at Pautucket Falls, between Chelmsford and Dracut, in the county of Middleſex. Theſe bridges are all ſupported by a toll.

Several other bridges are contemplated in different parts of the State, and one is actually begun, which, when completed, will connect the weſt part of Boſton with Cambridge, over Charles river, and will be more than twice as long, and attended with nearly twice the expenſe of any other that has yet been built in this or in any of the United States.

The legiſlature, in February 1792, were petitioned by a company for liberty to build a bridge over Connecticut river, at Montague; which was granted.

The only canals of importance which have been contemplated in this commonwealth, are one between Barnſtable and Buzzard's Bay, and thoſe neceſſary to render Connecticut river navigable, both of which we have mentioned, and one which ſhall open a communication between the town of Boſton and ſome part of Connecticut river, for which purpoſe General Knox and others were incorporated in 1792, by the name of "The Proprietors of the Maſſachuſetts Canal."

CURIOSITIES.] In the north part of the townſhip of Adams, in Berkſhire county, not half a mile from Stamford, in Vermont, is a natural curioſity which merits a deſcription. A pretty mill ſtream, called Hudſon's Brook, which riſes in Vermont, and

falls into the north branch of Hooſuck river, has, for thirty or forty rods, formed a very deep channel through a quarry of white marble. The hill, gradually deſcending towards the ſouth, terminates in a ſteep precipice, down which probably the water once tumbled. But finding in ſome places a natural chaſm in the rocks, and in others wearing them away, as is evident from their appearance, it has formed a channel which in ſome places is more than ſixty feet deep. Over this channel, where deepeſt, ſome of the rocks remain, and form a natural bridge. From the top of this bridge to the water it is ſixty-two feet; its length is about twelve or fifteen, and its breadth about ten. Partly under this bridge, and about ten or twelve feet below it, is another, which is wider but not ſo long; for at the eaſt end they form one body of rock, twelve or fourteen feet thick, and under this the water flows. It is evident, from the appearance of the rocks, that the water in ſome places formerly flowed forty or fifty feet above its preſent bed. Many cavities, of different figures and dimenſions, but generally circular, are worn out in the rocks. One of theſe, in the ſolid rock, is about four feet in diameter, and four or five feet deep; the rock is on one ſide worn through at the bottom. A little above the bridge, on the weſt ſide of the chaſm, is a cave or little room, which has a convenient entrance at the north, and a paſſage out at the eaſt. From the weſt ſide of this cave a chaſm extends into the hill, but ſoon becomes too narrow to paſs. The rocks here, which are moſtly white, though in ſome places clouded or ſtreaked with other colours, appear to be of that ſpecies of coarſe white marble which is common at Laneſborough, and in other towns in Berkſhire county.

In the town of Wrentham, about two miles S. E. of the meeting houſe, is a curious cavern called *Wampom's Rock*, from an Indian family of that name who reſided in it for a number of years. It is ſituated on the ſouth ſide of a hill, and is ſurrounded by a number of broken rocks. It is nearly ſquare, each ſide meaſuring about nine feet. The height is about eight feet in front, but from the center it leſſens to about four feet. At preſent it ſerves only as a ſhelter for cattle and ſheep, as do one or two other rocks or caves in the town, formerly inhabited by Indians.

Under this article we mention the falls of Powow river, which riſes in New Hampſhire, and falls into the Merrimack between Saliſbury and Ameſbury, in the county of Eſſex. At theſe falls, the deſcent of the water, in the diſtance of fifty rods, is 100 feet, and in its paſſage carries one bloomery, five ſaw mills, ſeven griſt mills, two linſeed oil mills, one fulling mill, and one ſnuff mill, beſides ſeveral wheels, auxiliary to different labours. The rapid fall of the water—the dams at very ſhort diſtances croſſing the river—the various wheels and mills ariſing almoſt immediately one over another—and the very irregular and groteſque ſituation of the houſes and other buildings on the adjoining grounds, gives this place a romantic appearance, and afford in the whole, one of the moſt ſingular views to be found in this country.

Lynn beach may be reckoned a curioſity. It is one mile in length, and connects the peninſula, called *Nahant*, with the main land. This is a place of much reſort for parties of pleaſure from Boſton, Charleſtown, Salem, and Marblehead, in the ſummer ſeaſon. The beach is uſed as a race ground, for which it is well calculated, being level, ſmooth, and hard.

Minerals, Foſſils, and Mineral Springs.] Iron ore in immenſe quantities is found in various parts of this State, particularly in the old colony of Plymouth, in the towns of Middleborough, Bridgewater, Taunton, Attleborough, Stoughton, and the towns in that neighbourhood, which has in conſequence become the ſeat of the iron manufactures. The ſlitting mills in this diſtrict, it is ſaid, annually ſlit 600 tons of iron; and one company has lately been formed, which will annually manufacture into

nails,

nails, of a quality equal to thoſe imported, 500 tons of iron. The number of ſpikes and nails made in this State is ſuppoſed now to be twice as large as that made in 1788, and is ſtill increaſing, and will probably ſoon preclude all foreign importations, and from the abundance of the raw material may become an article of export.

Copper ore is found at Leverett, in the county of Hampſhire, and at Attleborough, in the county of Briſtol. Several mines of black lead have been diſcovered in Brimfield, in Hampſhire county; and white pipe clay, and yellow and red ochre, at Martha's Vineyard. Allum ſlate, or ſtone, has been found in ſome parts; and alſo ruddle or a red earth, which has been uſed as a ground colour for priming, inſtead of Spaniſh brown. In a quarry of lime-ſtone, in the pariſh of Byefield, in the county of Eſſex, is found the *Aſbeſtos*, or incombuſtible cotton, as it has been called. Marble has been found in the ſame vicinity, and it is conjectured that there are conſiderable beds of it. The ſpecimens of it already exhibited have been beautifully variegated in colour, and admit an admirable poliſh. A marble quarry at Laneſborough affords very good marble.

Several mineral ſprings have been found in different parts of the State, particularly at Lynn, Wrentham, Menotomy Pariſh in Cambridge, &c. but none are celebrated as places of reſort for invalids.

Literary, Humane, and other Societies.] Theſe inſtitutions in Maſſachuſetts exhibit a fair trait in the character of the inhabitants. Among the firſt literary inſtitutions in this State is the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, incorporated May 4th, 1780. It is declared in the act, that the end and deſign of the inſtitution is to promote and encourage the knowledge of the antiquities of America, and of the natural hiſtory of the country, and to determine the uſes to which the various natural productions of the country may be applied; alſo to promote and encourage medical diſcoveries, mathematical diſquiſitions, philoſophical inquiries and experiments; aſtronomical, meteorological, and geographical obſervations; improvements in agriculture, arts, manufacture, commerce, and the cultivation of every ſcience that may tend to advance a free, independent, and virtuous people. There are never to be more than two hundred members, nor leſs than forty. This ſociety has four ſtated annual meetings.

The Massachusetts Charitable Society, incorporated December 16th, 1779, is intended for the mutual aid of themſelves and families, who may be diſtreſſed by any of the adverſe accidents of life, and for the comforting and relieving of widows and orphans of their deceaſed members. The members of this ſociety meet annually, and are not to exceed an hundred in number.

The Boston Episcopal Charitable Society, firſt inſtituted in 1724, and incorporated February 12, 1784, has for its object, charity to ſuch as are of the epiſcopal church, and to ſuch others as the ſociety ſhall think fit; but more eſpecially the relief of thoſe who are members of, and benefactors to, the ſociety, and afterwards become ſuitable objects of its charity. The members of this ſociety meet annually, and are not to exceed one hundred in number.

The Massachusetts Medical Society was incorporated November 1ſt, 1781. The deſign of this inſtitution is, to promote medical and ſurgical knowledge, inquiries into the animal economy, and the properties and effects of medicine, by encouraging a free intercourſe with the gentlemen of the faculty throughout the United States of America, and a friendly correſpondence with the eminent in thoſe profeſſions throughout the world. The number of Fellows who are inhabitants of the State, cannot exceed ſeventy. The preſent number is ſixty one, and thirteen have died ſince its eſtabliſhment. The powers veſted in the ſociety are—To chooſe their officers, and enact any laws for their

their own government which is not repugnant to the laws of the Commonwealth—To uſe a common ſeal—To ſue and be ſued—To hold real eſtate of the annual income of £200, and perſonal eſtate of the annual income of £600—To elect, ſuſpend, expel or diſfranchiſe any fellows of the ſociety—To deſcribe and point out, from time to time, ſuch a mode of medical inſtruction or education as they ſhall judge requiſite for candidates for the practice of phyſic and ſurgery—To examine all candidates who ſhall offer themſelves for examination, reſpecting their ſkill in the profeſſion—And to give letters teſtimonial of their approbation to all ſuch as may be duly qualified to practiſe.*

Committees are appointed in each county to receive communications from, and to correſpond with their medical brethren who are not fellows of the ſociety; and this has led to the formation of ſeveral medical aſſociations, whoſe views are to aid the laudable deſigns of this important inſtitution.

Further to evidence their humanity and benevolence, a number of the medical and other gentlemen, in the town of Boſton, in 1785, formed a ſociety, by the name of the HUMANE SOCIETY, for the purpoſe of recovering perſons apparently dead, from drowning, ſuffocation, ſtrangling, and other accidents. This ſociety, which was incorporated in 1791, have erected ſeven huts, furniſhed with wood, ſtraw, cabbins, tinder boxes, blankets, &c. two on Lovel's Iſland, one on Calf Iſland in Boſton harbour, two on Nantaſket beach, and another on Scituate beach near Marſhfield, for the comfort of ſhipwrecked ſeamen. Huts of the ſame kind are erected on Plum Iſland, near Newbury, by the marine ſociety of that place, already mentioned; and there are alſo ſome contiguous to Hampton and Saliſbury Beach.

At their ſemi-annual meetings, a public diſcourſe is delivered by ſome perſon appointed by the truſtees for that purpoſe, on ſome medical ſubject connected with the principal object of the ſociety; and as a ſtimulus to inveſtigation, and a reward of merit, a medal is adjudged annually by the preſident and truſtees, to the perſon who exhibits the moſt approved diſſertation.

The SOCIETY FOR PROPAGATING THE GOSPEL among the Indians and others in North America, was incorporated November 19, 1787. They are enabled to receive ſubſcriptions of charitably diſpoſed perſons, and may take any perſonal eſtate in ſucceſſion. All donations to the ſociety, either by ſubſcriptions, legacy or otherwiſe, excepting ſuch as may be differently appropriated by the donors, to make a part of, or be put into the capital ſtock of the ſociety, which is to be put out on intereſt on good ſecurity, or otherwiſe improved to the beſt advantage, and the income and profits are to be applied to the purpoſes aforeſaid, in ſuch manner as the ſociety ſhall judge moſt conducive to anſwer the deſign of their inſtitution. For ſeveral years paſt miſſionaries have been appointed and ſupported by the ſociety to viſit the eaſtern parts of the Diſtrict of Main, where the people are generally deſtitute of the means of religious inſtruction, and to ſpend the ſummer months with them. The ſucceſs of theſe miſſions have been highly ſatisfactory to the ſociety. Several thouſand books of different kinds, ſuited to the ſtate of the people, have been purchaſed by the ſociety's funds, and diſtributed among them and the Oneida Indians.

A part of this ſociety are a board of commiſſioners from the Scot's ſociety for promoting Chriſtian knowledge among the Indians in America.

The MASSACHUSETTS SOCIETY FOR PROMOTING AGRICULTURE was incorporated in 1792, in conſequence of which the agricultural committee of the Academy is diſſolved.

* The qualifications required of candidates for examination, and the books recommended by the ſociety, are publiſhed in Fleet's Maſſachuſetts Regiſter, A. D. 1791.

At

At a late meeting of this ſociety, in Boſton, a very conſiderable ſum of money was ſubſcribed, for eſtabliſhing a fund to defray the expenſe of premiums and bounties, which may be voted by the ſociety.

A ſociety was eſtabliſhed in this State in 1791, called the HISTORICAL SOCIETY, the profeſſed deſign of which is to collect, preſerve, and communicate materials for a complete hiſtory of this country from the beginning of its ſettlement.

Next to Pennſylvania, this State has the greateſt number of ſocieties for the promotion of uſeful knowledge and human happineſs; and as they are founded on the broad baſis of *benevolence*, *patriotiſm*, and *charity*, they cannot fail to proſper. Theſe inſtitutions, which are faſt increaſing in almoſt every State in the Union, are ſo many evidences of the advanced and advancing ſtate of civilization and improvement in this country, and of the excellence of our national government. They prove likewiſe that a free republican government, like ours, is the moſt happily calculated to promote a general diffuſion of uſeful knowledge, and the moſt favourable to the benevolent and humane feelings of the human heart.

LITERATURE, COLLEGES, ACADEMIES, &c.] According to the laws of this commonwealth, every town having fifty houſeholders or upwards, is to be provided with one or more ſchool-maſters to teach children and youth to read and write, and inſtruct them in the Engliſh language, arithmetic, orthography, and decent behaviour; and where any town has two hundred families, there is alſo to be a grammar ſchool ſet up therein, and ſome diſcreet perſon, well inſtructed in the Latin, Greek and Engliſh languages, procured to keep the ſame, and be ſuitably paid by the inhabitants. The penalty for neglect of ſchools in towns of fifty families is 10l. thoſe of one hundred families 20l.—of one hundred and fifty, 30l.

Theſe laws reſpecting ſchools are not ſo well regarded in many parts of the State, as the wiſe purpoſes which they were intended to anſwer, and the happineſs of the people require.

In Boſton there are ſeven public ſchools, ſupported wholly at the expenſe of the town, and in which the children of *every* claſs of citizens freely aſſociate. In the Latin grammar ſchool the rudiments of the Latin and Greek languages are taught, and boys qualified for the univerſities; into this ſchool none are admitted till ten years of age, having been previouſly well inſtructed in Engliſh grammar. In the three Engliſh grammar ſchools, the children of *both* ſexes, from ſeven to fourteen years of age, are inſtructed in ſpelling, accenting and reading the Engliſh language both proſe and verſe, with propriety, alſo in Engliſh grammar and compoſition, together with the rudiments of geography; in the other three the ſame children are taught writing and arithmetic. Theſe ſchools are attended alternately, and each of them is furniſhed with an uſher or aſſiſtant. The maſters of theſe ſchools have each a ſalary of 666⅔ dollars per annum, payable quarterly.

They are all under the immediate care of a committee of twenty-one gentlemen, for the time being, choſen annually, whoſe duty it is "to viſit the ſchools at leaſt once in three months, to examine the ſcholars in the various branches in which they are taught, to deviſe the beſt methods for the inſtruction and government of the ſchools, to give ſuch advice to the maſters as they ſhall think expedient, and by all proper methods to excite in children a laudable ambition to excel in a virtuous, amiable deportment, and in every branch of uſeful knowledge." At the annual viſitation in July 1792, there were preſent 470 girls and 720 boys. Beſides theſe there are ſeveral private ſchools, for inſtruction in the Engliſh, Latin, and French languages—in writing, arithmetic, and the higher branches of the mathematics—and alſo in muſic and dancing. Perhaps there

there is not a town in the world, the youth of which more fully enjoy the benefits of ſchool education, than Boſton. And when we conſider how inſeparably the happineſs and proſperity of our country, and the exiſtence of our preſent happy government, are connected with the education of children, too much credit cannot be given to the enlightened citizens of this town, for the attention they have paid to this important buſineſs, and the worthy example they have exhibited for the imitation of others.

Next in importance to the grammar ſchools are the Academies, in which, as well as in the grammar ſchools, young gentlemen are fitted for admiſſion to the univerſity.

Dummer Academy, at Newbury, was founded as early as 1756, by means of a liberal donation from the Honourable William Dummer, formerly Lieutenant-governor, and a worthy man, whoſe name it has ever ſince retained. It was opened in 1763, and incorporated by an act of the general court, in 1782. By the act the number of truſtees is not to exceed fifteen, who are to manage the funds for the ſupport of the inſtructors. This academy is at preſent in a flouriſhing ſtate.

Phillips Academy, in Andover, was founded and handſomely endowed April 21, 1778, by the Honourable Samuel Phillips, Eſq. of Andover, in the county of Eſſex, and commonwealth of Maſſachuſetts, lately deceaſed, and his brother the Honourable John Phillips, L. L. D. of Exeter, in the State of New Hampſhire. It was incorporated October 4, 1780. It is under the direction of thirteen truſtees of reſpectable characters, and the immediate care of a principal, (who is one of the truſtees *ex officio*) an aſſiſtant, and a writing maſter. They are accommodated with a large and elegant building, erected at the expenſe of the founders, and their brother, the Honourable William Phillips, Eſq. of Boſton. It is ſituated on a delightful eminence, near the manſion houſe of the Honourable Samuel Phillips, Eſq. its diſtinguiſhed patron, and ſon of the deceaſed founder—is encompaſſed with a ſalubrious air, and commands an extenſive proſpect. The lower ſtory contains a large ſchool-room, with ample accommodations for an hundred ſtudents, and two other apartments for a library, and other purpoſes: the upper ſtory conſiſts of a ſpacious hall, ſixty-four feet in length, and thirty-three feet in breadth, deſigned for exhibitions and other public occaſions.

The deſign of this foundation, according to its conſtitution, is, "The promotion of true piety and virtue, the inſtruction of youth in the Engliſh, Latin, and Greek languages; together with writing, arithmetic, practical geometry, muſic and oratory, logic and geography; and ſuch other of the liberal arts and ſciences, or languages, as opportunity and ability may hereafter admit, and the truſtees ſhall direct."

Leicester Academy, in the townſhip of Leiceſter, and county of Worceſter, was incorporated in 1784. For the encouragement of this inſtitution, Ebenezer Crafts and Jacob Davis, Eſquires, generouſly gave a large and commodious manſion houſe, lands and appurtenances, in Leiceſter.

In Williamſtown, in Berkſhire county, is another Academy. Col. Ephraim Williams laid the foundation of it by a handſome donation in lands. In 1790, partly by lottery and partly by the liberal donation of gentlemen in the town, a brick edifice was erected, 82 feet by 42, and four ſtories high, containing twenty-four rooms for ſtudents, a large ſchool room, a dining hall, and a room for public ſpeaking. It has a preceptor, an uſher, and a maſter of the Engliſh ſchool. The number of ſtudents is at preſent between fifty and ſixty, beſides the ſcholars of the free ſchool. The languages and ſciences uſually taught in the American colleges are taught here. Board, tuition, and other expenſes of education are very low; and from its ſituation, and other circumſtances, it is likely, in a ſhort time, to become an inſtitution of conſiderable utility and importance.

An Academy at Taunton was incorporated in 1792.

At Hingham is a well endowed ſchool, which, in honour of its principal donor and founder, is called DERBY SCHOOL.

Theſe Academies are deſigned to diſſeminate virtue and true piety, to promote the education of youth in the Engliſh, Latin, Greek, and French languages, in writing, arithmetic, oratory, geography, practical geometry, logic, philoſophy, and ſuch other of the liberal arts and ſciences, or languages, as may be thought expedient.

HARVARD UNIVERSITY takes its date from the year 1638. Two years before, the general court gave four hundred pounds for the ſupport of a public ſchool at Newtown, which has ſince been called Cambridge. This year (1638) the Rev. Mr. John Harvard, a worthy miniſter reſiding in Charleſtown, died, and left a donation of 779l. for the uſe of the forementioned public ſchool. In honour to the memory of ſo liberal a benefactor, the general court, the ſame year, ordered that the ſchool ſhould take the name of HARVARD COLLEGE.

In 1642, the College was put upon a more reſpectable footing, and the governor, deputy governor, and magiſtrates, and the miniſters of the ſix next adjacent towns, with the preſident, were erected into a corporation for the ordering and managing its concerns. It received its firſt charter in 1650.

Cambridge, in which the univerſity is ſituated, is a pleaſant village, four miles weſtward from Boſton, containing a number of gentlemen's ſeats which are neat and well built. The univerſity conſiſts of four elegant brick edifices, handſomely encloſed. They ſtand on a beautiful green which ſpreads to the north-weſt, and exhibit a pleaſing view.

The names of the ſeveral buildings are, Harvard Hall, Maſſachuſetts Hall, Hollis Hall and Holden Chapel. Harvard Hall is divided into ſix apartments; one of which is appropriated for the library, one for the muſeum, two for the philoſophical apparatus; one is uſed for a chapel, and the other for a dining hall. The library, in 1791, conſiſted of upwards of 13,000 volumes; and will be continually increaſing from the intereſt of permanent funds, as well as from caſual benefactions. The philoſophical apparatus belonging to this univerſity, coſt between 1400l. and 1500l. lawful money, and is the moſt elegant and complete of any in America.

Agreeable to the preſent conſtitution of Maſſachuſetts, his excellency the governor, lieutenant-governor, the council and ſenate, the preſident of the univerſity, and the miniſters of the congregational churches in the towns of Boſton, Charleſtown, Cambridge, Watertown, Roxbury, and Dorcheſter, are, *ex officiis*, overſeers of the Univerſity.

The corporation is a diſtinct body, conſiſting of ſeven members, in whom is veſted the property of the univerſity.

Harvard univerſity has a Preſident, Emeritus Profeſſor of Divinity—Holliſian Profeſſor of Divinity—Hancock Profeſſor of Hebrew and other Oriental languages—Hollis Profeſſor of Mathematics and Natural Philoſophy—Herſey Profeſſor of Anatomy and Surgery—Herſey Profeſſor of the theory and practice of Phyſic—Erving Profeſſor of Chymiſtry and Materia Medica—four tutors, who teach the Greek and Latin languages, logic, metaphyſics, and ethics, geography, and the elements of geometry, natural philoſophy, aſtronomy, and hiſtory; and a preceptor of the French language.

This univerſity, as to its library, philoſophical apparatus and profeſſorſhips, is at preſent the firſt literary inſtitution on this continent. Since its firſt eſtabliſhment, upwards of 3,300 ſtudents have received honorary degrees from its ſucceſſive officers;

about one third of whom have been ordained to the work of the goſpel miniſtry. It has generally from 130 to 160 ſtudents.

This univerſity is liberally endowed, and is frequently receiving donations for the eſtabliſhment of new profeſſorſhips. Formerly there was an annual grant made by the legiſlature, to the preſident and profeſſors, of from four to five hundred pounds, which for ſeveral years paſt has been diſcontinued.

BANKS.] There are four incorporated Banks in this Commonwealth, of which the Branch Bank in Boſton, which is a part of the National Bank, is one. The Maſſachuſetts Bank in Boſton was incorporated in 1784. It was deſigned as a public benefit, and more particularly to accommodate the mercantile intereſt. Its preſent capital conſiſts of 800 ſhares of 500 dollars each, making in all 400,000 dollars. It is kept open every day in the year, except public days. The annual meeting for the choice of nine directors is on the firſt Wedneſday in January.

Eſſex Bank, at Salem, was incorporated 1792, and is under the management of a preſident and ſix directors.

Union Bank, in Boſton, was alſo incorporated in 1792, and has a preſident and eleven directors. Its capital conſiſts of 100,000 ſhares of eight dollars each, ſo that when the payment of the ſhares ſhall be completed, the whole ſtock will amount to 800,000 dollars.

CHIEF TOWNS.] BOSTON is the capital, not only of Maſſachuſetts, but of New England, and lies in lat. 42° 23′ N. It is built on a peninſula of an irregular form, at the bottom of Maſſachuſetts Bay. The neck or iſthmus which joins the peninſula to the continent, is at the ſouth end of the town, and leads to Roxbury. The length of the town itſelf is not quite two miles; its breadth is various. At the entrance from Roxbury it is narrow. The greateſt breadth is one mile and 139 yards. The buildings in the town cover about 1000 acres. It contains nearly 2000 dwelling houſes and about 20,000 inhabitants.

In this town there are ſeventy-nine ſtreets, thirty-eight lanes, and twenty-one alleys, excluſive of ſquares and courts; and about eighty wharfs and quays very convenient for veſſels. The principal wharf extends 600 yards into the ſea, and is covered on the north ſide with large and convenient ſtores. It far exceeds any other wharf in the United States.

In Boſton are 17 houſes for public worſhip; of which nine are for Congregationaliſts, three for Epiſcopalians, two for Baptiſts, one for the Friends, one for Univerſaliſts, and one for Roman Catholics.

The other public buildings are the ſtate houſe, court houſe, gaol, Faneuil Hall, an alms houſe, a work houſe, a bridewell, and powder magazine. That building which was formerly the governor's houſe, is now occupied in its ſeveral apartments, by the council, the treaſurer, and the ſecretary; the two latter hold their offices in it. Moſt of the public buildings are handſome, and ſome of them are elegant. The town is irregularly built, but, as it lies in a circular form around the harbour, it exhibits a very handſome view as you approach it from the ſea. On the weſt ſide of the town is the mall, a very beautiful public walk, adorned with rows of trees, and in view of the common, which is always open to refreſhing breezes. Beacon hill, on which a handſome monument, commemorative of ſome of the moſt important events of the late war, has lately been erected, overlooks the town from the weſt, and affords a fine variegated proſpect.

The harbour of Boſton is ſafe, and large enough to contain 500 ſhips at anchor, in a good depth of water; while the entrance is ſo narrow as ſcarcely to admit two ſhips abreaſt. It is diverſified, as we have already obſerved, with 40 iſlands, which afford

rich paſturing, hay, and grain. About three miles from the town is the caſtle, which commands the entrance of the harbour.

The market in this town is ſupplied with an abundance of beef, pork, mutton, lamb, veal, and poultry, and of a quality equal to any in the world; and alſo with meal, butter, cheeſe, roots, vegetables, and fruits of various kinds, in great plenty. The fiſh market is alſo excellent, and not only furniſhes the tables of the rich with ſome of the greateſt dainties, but is alſo a ſingular bleſſing to the poor.

At an annual meeting in March, ſeven ſelect men are choſen for the more immediate government of the town; at the ſame time are elected a town clerk, a town treaſurer, 12 overſeers of the poor, 12 firewards, 12 clerks of the market, 12 ſcavengers, and 12 conſtables, beſides a number of other officers. Attempts have been made to change the government of the town from its preſent form to that of a city, but the propoſed form not being conſonant to the democratic ſpirit of the body of the people, it has been rejected.

Boſton was ſettled as early as the year 1630, from Charleſtown. The peninſula was called, by the natives, Shawmut; but the inhabitants of Charleſtown, from the view they had of three hills, called it *Trimountain*. The new inhabitants, however, named it Boſton, out of reſpect to the Rev. Mr. Cotton, formerly a miniſter of Boſton, in England, who was expected to come over to New England. He was afterwards miniſter of the *firſt church*.

It has been computed, that during the ſiege in 1775, as many houſes were deſtroyed in Boſton by the Britiſh troops, as were burnt in Charleſtown. Since the peace a ſpirit of repairs and improvement has diffuſed itſelf among the inhabitants. The ſtreets of late have been lighted with lamps at the expenſe of the town; and ſome ſmall beginnings have been made towards improving the ſtreets by new paving them, which it is hoped will ſtimulate to like improvements through the town. The principal manufactures here are, rum, beer, paper hangings, of which 24,000 pieces are annually made, loaf ſugar, cordage, cards, ſail cloth, ſpermaceti and tallow candles, glaſs—there are thirty diſtilleries, two breweries, eight ſugar houſes, and eleven rope walks. A few years may render the metropolis of Maſſachuſetts as famed for arts, manufactures, and commerce, as any city in the United States.

Salem, the ſecond town for ſize in the Commonwealth, containing 928 houſes and 7921 inhabitants, and except Plymouth, the oldeſt, was ſettled in 1628, by Governor Endicot, and was called by the Indians, Naumkeag. Here are a meeting of Quakers, an epiſcopal church and five congregational ſocieties. The town is ſituated on a peninſula, formed by two ſmall inlets of the ſea, called North and South rivers. The former of theſe paſſes into Beverly Harbour, and has a draw-bridge acroſs it, built many years ago at private expenſe.—At this place ſome part of the ſhipping of the town is fitted out; but the principal harbour and place for buſineſs is on the other ſide of the town, at South river, if that may properly be called a river, which depends on the flowing of the ſea for the water it contains. So ſhoal is this harbour that veſſels which draw more than ten or twelve feet of water, muſt be laden and unladen at a diſtance from the wharfs by the aſſiſtance of lighters. This inconvenience, notwithſtanding, more navigation is owned, and more trade carried on in Salem than in any port in the Commonwealth, Boſton excepted. The fiſhery, the trade to the Weſt Indies, to Europe, to the coaſt of Africa, to the Eaſt Indies, and the freighting buſineſs from the ſouthern States, are here all purſued with energy and ſpirit. The enterprize of the merchants of this place is equalled by nothing but their indefatigable induſtry and ſevere economy. This latter virtue forms a diſtinguiſhing feature in the character of the people of this

town. Some perſons of rank, in former times, having carried it to an unbecoming length, gave a character to the people in general of a diſgraceful parſimony. But, whether this reproach was ever juſtly applied in ſo extenſive a meaſure or not, nothing can be more injurious than to continue it at the preſent time; for it may juſtly be ſaid of the inhabitants of Salem at this day, that, with a laudable attention to the acquiſition of property, they exhibit a public ſpirit and hoſpitality, alike honourable to themſelves and their country. A general plainneſs and neatneſs in dreſs, buildings and equipage, and a certain ſtillneſs and gravity of manner, perhaps in ſome degree peculiar to commercial people, diſtinguiſh them from the citizens of the metropolis. It is indeed to be wiſhed that the ſober induſtry here ſo univerſally practiſed, may become more extenſive through the union, and form the national character of federal Americans.

A court houſe, built in 1786, at the joint expenſe of the county and town, forms a principal ornament, and is executed in a ſtyle of architecture that would add to the elegance of any city in the union. The Supreme Judicial Court holds a term here the ſecond Tueſday of November, the courts of Common Pleas and Seſſions, the ſecond Tueſday of March and September.

A manufactory of duck and ſail cloth was lately inſtituted here, and is proſecuted with much ſpirit.

The melancholy deluſion of 1692 originated in this town, in the family of the Rev. Mr. Paris, the then miniſter, and here was the principal theatre of the bloody buſineſs. At the upper end of the town, at a place called, from the number of executions which took place there, Gallows-hill, the graves of the unhappy ſufferers may yet be traced. Though this unfortunate and diſgraceful buſineſs was chiefly tranſacted here, it is well known that the leading people, both of church and ſtate, in the colony, took an active part in it. Unjuſt therefore and highly abſurd it is to fix a peculiar odium on the town of Salem for what was the general weakneſs or crime of the country. While the ſarcaſtic ſmile is excited among the vain and unthinking, or the inſulting abuſe of illiberal prejudice is unjuſtly thrown on this ſhocking tragedy, the ſerious cannot but lament to find the human mind ſubject to ſo groſs deceptions, and the man of candour will haſten to drop the curtain on the diſmal ſcene.

South-eaſt from Salem, and at four miles diſtance from it, lies Marblehead, containing one epiſcopal and two congregational churches, beſides a ſmall ſociety of ſeparatiſts. The chief attention of this town is devoted to the bank fiſhery, and more is done in that line than in any port in the government. The late war putting a total ſtop to this buſineſs, and vaſt numbers of the men before employed in it being loſt by land and water, the peace found thoſe who ſurvived in circumſtances of great diſtreſs. Great exertions were made to revive the former courſe of buſineſs, and it is lamented by every friend to induſtry and the proſperity of the country, that theſe exertions have not been crowned with more ſucceſs; every thing here has more and more the ſymptoms of decay. The great number of widows and orphans cauſed by the war, and left at the cloſe of it to the charge of the town, are a melancholy burthen which nothing leſs than governmental aid can relieve. A lottery has been granted by the legiſlature for the double purpoſe of leſſening the weight of this burden, and repairing the ſea wall, which protects the harbour, and which was in imminent danger of giving way, to the great detriment, if not utter ruin of the port.

A peculiarity obſervable in our fiſhing town may be worthy mentioning. The ſpring, ſummer, and autumn, being entirely occupied in the laborious purſuit of their employment, leaves no time for amuſements. In winter, every thing is different. There are

few

few calls to labour, and all are devoted to mirth and jollity. A continual round of gaiety and diſſipation occupy the fiſherman's time, until returning ſpring calls him to returning labour, which he now purſues as eagerly as he did juſt before his amuſement.

Newbury Port, originally part of Newbury, from which its incorporation detached it in 1764, and by which and Merrimack river it is wholly encircled, is perhaps the moſt limited in its extent of land, of any townſhip in the Commonwealth, containing but about 640 acres. Here are four houſes for public worſhip, viz. one Epiſcopalian, one Preſbyterian, and two Congregational. It was formerly remarkable for the number of veſſels annually built here; but ſince the commencement of the late war, this buſineſs has in a great degree failed, and no manufacture of conſequence has yet ſupplied its place. The continental frigates, Boſton and Hancock, were built here, beſides many large private armed ſhips, during the war. The trade to the Weſt Indies is carried on here with much ſpirit and to a great amount. Large quantities of rum are diſtilled, which is principally exported to the ſouthern States. Some veſſels are employed in the freighting buſineſs, and a few in the fiſhery. In November, 1790, there were owned in this port ſix ſhips, 45 brigantines, 39 ſcooners, and 28 ſloops, making in the whole 11,870 tons. A term of the courts of Common Pleas and General Seſſions is held here on the laſt Tueſday in September.

Ipſwich, by the Indians called Agawam, in the county of Eſſex, is 32 miles N. N. E. from Boſton, is divided into five pariſhes, and contains 4562 inhabitants. An excellent ſtone bridge, acroſs Ipſwich river, compoſed of two arches, with one ſolid pier in the bed of the river, connects the two parts of the town, and was executed under the direction of the late Honourable Judge Choate, in a ſtyle of ſtrength and neatneſs hitherto unequalled in this country. This was heretofore a place of much more conſideration than at preſent. Its decline is attributed to a barred harbour and ſhoal rivers. Its natural ſituation is very pleaſant, and on all accounts excellently well calculated to be a large manufacturing town. The ſupreme Judicial Court, the courts of Common Pleas and Seſſions, are held here once in a year; and from its central ſituation, appears to be the moſt convenient place for all the courts and public offices of the county.

Charleſtown, called by the aboriginal inhabitants, *Miſhawum*, lies north of Boſton, with which it is connected by Charles river bridge, and is the principal town in Middleſex county. The town, properly ſo called, is built on a peninſula, formed by Myſtic river, on the eaſt, and a bay, ſetting up from Charles river on the weſt. It is very advantageouſly ſituated for health,* navigation, trade, and manufactures of almoſt all the various kinds. A dam acroſs the mouth of the bay, which ſets up from Charles river, weſt of the town, would afford a great number of mill ſeats for manufactures. Bunker, Breed's, and Cobble, now Barrel's, hills, are celebrated in the hiſtory of the American Revolution; and no leſs ſo for the elegant and delightful proſpects which they afford of Boſton, and its charmingly variegated harbour—of Cambridge and its Colleges, and of an extenſive tract of highly cultivated country.

The deſtruction of this town by the Britiſh, in 1775, we have mentioned in the hiſtorical ſketch we have given of the war. Before its deſtruction, ſeveral branches of manufactures were carried on to great advantage, ſome of which have been ſince revived; particularly the manufacture of pot and pearl aſh, rum, ſhips, leather in all its branches, ſilver, tin, braſs, and pewter.

* In three years, ending 1791, eighty perſons died, nineteen of whom were upwards of 60 years old; ten were upwards of 70; four upwards of 80, and one 90.

Cambridge

Cambridge and Concord are the moſt conſiderable inland towns in the county of Middleſex, the former is four miles from Boſton, and is a pleaſant town, and the ſeat of the univerſity. The latter is nineteen miles N. W. of Boſton, and is alſo a pleaſant, healthy, thriving town. The Provincial Congreſs ſat in Concord in 1774, and the general court have frequently held their ſeſſions here when contagious diſeaſes have prevailed in the capital. This town is rendered famous in hiſtory by its being the place where the firſt oppoſition was made to the Britiſh troops, on the memorable 19th of April 1775. The public buildings are, a congregational church, a ſpacious ſtone gaol, the beſt in New England, and a county court houſe. The town is accommodated with three handſome bridges, one of which is 208 feet long and 18 feet wide, ſupported by twelve piers, built after the manner of Charles river bridge. In 1791, there were 1590 inhabitants, in this town, eighty of whom were upwards 70 years old. For thirteen years paſt the average number of deaths has been ſeventeen, one in four of whom were 70 years old and upwards.

Plymouth, the principal town in the county of the ſame name, and the capital of the *old colony*, ſo called, is 42 miles S. E. of Boſton, and contains about 300 houſes. Before the war, the inhabitants of this town employed ninety ſail of veſſels, chiefly in the fiſhing buſineſs. But in the courſe of the war, they were moſtly taken or deſtroyed by the enemy, and their ſeamen captivated, and many of the inhabitants reduced to indigence. They have ſince, in a great meaſure, emerged from their diſtreſſed ſtate. The harbour is ſpacious, but the water is not deep. The town is famous for being the firſt place ſettled by the pious anceſtors of the New Englanders, in 1620.

Worceſter, the ſhire town of the county of the ſame name, is the largeſt inland town in New England, and is ſituated about forty-ſeven miles weſtward of Boſton. The public buildings in this town, are two congregational churches, a court houſe, and a ſtrong ſtone gaol. The inhabitants carry on a large inland trade, and manufacture pot and pearl aſh, cotton and linen goods, beſides ſome other articles.

Printing, in its various branches, is carried on very extenſively in this town, by Iſaiah Thomas, who, in the year 1791, carried through his preſſes two editions of the Bible, the one the large royal quarto, the firſt of that kind publiſhed in America, the other a large folio, with fifty copper plates, beſides ſeveral other books of conſequence. His printing apparatus conſiſts of ten printing preſſes, with types in proportion; and he is now making preparations for the printing of bibles of various ſmaller kinds, which will cauſe him to make a great addition to his works, of both preſſes and types. This printing apparatus is now the largeſt in America.

On Connecticut river, in the county of Hampſhire, there are a number of very pleaſant towns, among which are Springfield and Hadley, on the eaſt ſide of the river; Northampton, Hatfield and Deerfield on the weſt. Courts are held in all theſe places in their turn, except Hatfield. Springfield is the oldeſt of theſe towns, having been ſettled as early as 1636. Its public buildings are a congregational church, court houſe, and gaol. A large proportion of the military ſtores of the commonwealth are lodged here. A clear meandering brook runs through the town from north to ſouth, and adds much to its beauty and pleaſantneſs.

Stockbridge, Great Barrington, and Lenox, are the principal towns in Berkſhire county, and lie from 45 to 55 miles W. N. W. from Springfield.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The active militia of Maſſachuſetts is compoſed of all able bodied, white male citizens from 16 to 40 years of age, excepting officers of government, and thoſe who have held commiſſioners, &c. The whole is completely armed and organized, and is formed into nine diviſions, each commanded by a major-general,

nineteen

nineteen brigades, conſiſting of ſeventy-nine regiments of infantry, eleven battalions of cavalry, and eight battalions of artillery; together forming a well-regulated body of 50,000 infantry, 2000 cavalry, and 1500 artillery men, with ſixty pieces of field artillery. This active military corps is aſſembled by companies for diſcipline, in their reſpective diſtricts, four times a year; and once a year by regiments or brigades; at which time they are reviewed and inſpected.

Beſides the military ſtrength above mentioned, which may be conſidered as the active militia of the State, there are enrolled about 25,000 men from 40 to 60 years of age, who are obliged always to keep themſelves completely armed; and they are required, under penalty by law, to exhibit their arms once a year to their reſpective captains, who make returns thereof. This laſt corps is called the alarm liſt, and may be properly diſtinguiſhed as the *Corps de Reſerve* of the Commonwealth.

RELIGION.] The religion of this Commonwealth is eſtabliſhed, by their excellent conſtitution, on a moſt liberal and tolerant plan. All perſons of whatever religious profeſſion or ſentiments, may worſhip God agreeably to the dictates of their own conſciences, unmoleſted, provided they do not diſturb the peace.

The following ſtatement ſhews what are the ſeveral religious denominations in this State, and their proportional numbers.

Denominations.	Number of Congregations.	Suppoſed number of each denomination.
Congregationaliſts,	400	277,600
Baptiſts,	84	58,296
Epiſcopalians,	16	11,104
Friends, or Quakers,	10	6,940
Preſbyterians,	4	2,776
Univerſaliſts,	2	1,388
Roman Catholics	1	694
Total	517	358,798

In this ſtatement, it is ſuppoſed that all the inhabitants in the State conſider themſelves as belonging to one or the other of the religious denominations mentioned; and that each religious ſociety, of every denomination, is compoſed of an equal number of ſouls; that is, each is ſuppoſed to contain 694, which, if we reckon the number of inhabitants in the State at 358,798, will be the proportion for each congregation.

Although this may not be an exact apportionment of the different ſects, yet it is perhaps as accurate as the nature of the ſubject will allow, and ſufficient to give a general idea of the proportion which the ſeveral denominations bear to each other.

The number of congregational churches in 1749 was 250.

In 1760, the number of inhabitants in this State was about 268,850. The proportion of the ſects was then nearly as follows, viz.

Sects.	Congregrations.	Suppoſed number of ſouls of each ſect.
Congregationaliſts,	306	225,426
Friends meetings,	22	16,192
Baptiſts,	20	14,723
Epiſcopalians,	13	9,568
Preſbyterians,	4	2,944
Total	365	268,850

Popu-

POPULATION.] The population of the State is accurately ſtated in the table of diviſions. The counties of Eſſex, part of Suffolk, and part of Hampſhire, are the moſt populous parts of the State. Eſſex has as many as 135 inhabitants for every ſquare mile.

CHARACTER, MANNERS, &c.] See New England.

REVENUE AND TAXES.] The principal ſources of revenue are land and poll taxes, and the ſales of new lands. Taxes are levied on all males between ſixteen and fifty, except ſuch as are exempted by law—alſo on the number of acres of improved and unimproved land—on dwelling-houſes and barns, ware-houſes, ſtores, &c. Theſe are all valued, and upon this valuation taxes are laid, ſo many pounds for every 1000l.

INVENTIONS AND IMPROVEMENTS.] Great improvements have of late been made in ſeveral manufacturing machines, by which thoſe ſpecies of manufacture in which they are employed have been greatly facilitated in the execution, and fewer hands required. But the moſt ingenious improvement or invention, and which moſt deſerves notice, is a complete and elegant Planetarium, ſix feet in diameter, conſtructed by Mr. Joſeph Pope, of Boſton. This is entirely a work of original genius and aſſiduous application, as Mr. Pope never ſaw a machine of the kind till his own was completed. It exhibits a proof of great ſtrength of mind, and really does him much honour, both as a philoſopher and a mechanic. This machine has been purchaſed for the Univerſity at Cambridge, and is a very uſeful and ornamental addition to the philoſophical apparatus.

CONSTITUTION.] The conſtitution of the Commonwealth of Maſſachuſetts eſtabliſhed in 1780, contains a declaration of rights and a frame of government. The declaration aſſerts the natural freedom and equality of men---Liberty of conſcience---Freedom of the Preſs---Trial by jury---Sovereignty and independence---that all power is in the people---that hereditary honours and emoluments are inadmiſſible---that every ſubject is entitled to protection of life, liberty, and property---and, in return, muſt obey the laws and pay his proportion of the common expenſe---that he ſhall not be obliged to accuſe himſelf, but may be heard in his own defence---that he may keep arms; but ſtanding armies ſhall not be maintained in time of peace---that no tax ſhall be levied without the conſent of the people by their repreſentatives---that no ex poſt facto law ſhall be made---that the martial law ſhall extend only to men in actual military ſervice---that the legiſlative, executive, and judiciary powers ſhall be kept diſtinct, &c. By the frame of government, the power of legiſlation is lodged in a general court, conſiſting of two branches, viz. a ſenate and a houſe of repreſentatives, each having a negative upon the other. They meet annually on the laſt Wedneſday in May. No act can be paſſed without the approbation of the governor, unleſs two thirds of both branches are in favour of it after a reviſal. Either branch, or the governor and council, may require the opinion of the juſtices of the ſupreme judicial court upon important queſtions. Senators are choſen by diſtricts, of which there cannot be leſs than thirteen. The number of counſellors and ſenators, for the whole Commonwealth, is forty; the number of each diſtrict is in proportion to their public taxes; but no diſtrict ſhall be ſo large, as to have more than ſix. Sixteen ſenators make a quorum. The repreſentatives are choſen by the ſeveral towns, according to their numbers of rateable polls. For 150 polls one is elected; and for every addition of 225, an additional one. Their travelling expenſes, to and from the general court, are defrayed by the public, but their wages for attendance are paid by their own towns. Impeachments for miſconduct in office are made by the repreſentatives, and tried by the ſenate; but the judgement can go only to removal from office and future diſqualification. Money bills originate in the houſe of repreſentatives, but may be altered by

the ſenate. Repreſentatives are privileged from arreſts on meſne proceſs. Sixty members make a quorum. The ſupreme executive authority is veſted in a governor, who is elected annually by the people, and has a council conſiſting of the lieutenant-governor, and nine gentlemen choſen out of the forty, who are returned for counſellors and ſenators. Five counſellors make a quorum. The governor is commander of all the military force of the Commonwealth. He may convene the general court, may adjourn them, when the two branches diſagree about the time, and in their receſs may prorogue them from time to time, not exceeding ninety days---may pardon convicts, but the legiſlature alone can grant pardons, before conviction. He commiſſions all officers, and with the advice of the council, appoints all judicial officers. Military officers are thus appointed; the reſpective companies chooſe their captain and ſubalterns, who chooſe their regimental officers, who chooſe their brigadiers. The major generals are appointed by the general court. Juſtices of the peace are commiſſioned for ſeven years; all other judicial, and all executive and military officers, continue during good behaviour, yet are removeable by the governor, upon addreſs of the legiſlature. The ſalaries of the governor and juſtices of the ſupreme court cannot be diminiſhed, although they may be enlarged. Official qualifications are as follows:---for a voter, twenty-one years of age, one year's reſidence, a freehold of 3l. annual value, or 60l. of any other eſtate---for a repreſentative, 100l. freehold, or 200l. other eſtate, and one year's reſidence in the town---for a ſenator, 300l. freehold, or 600l. other eſtate in the Commonwealth, and five year's reſidence in the diſtrict---for governor or lieutenant-governor, 1000l. freehold, and ſeven year's reſidence. Every governor, lieutenant-governor, counſellor, ſenator, or repreſentative, muſt declare that he believes the Chriſtian religion, and has the legal qualifications. A governor, lieutenant-governor, or juſtice of the ſupreme court, can hold no other office. No man ſhall hold two of theſe offices, judge of probates, ſheriff, regiſter. No juſtices of the ſupreme court, ſecretary, attorney-general, treaſurer, judge of probate, inſtructor of Harvard College, clerk, regiſter, ſheriff, or cuſtom officer, can have a ſeat in the legiſlature. The privilege of habeas corpus cannot be ſuſpended more than a year at one time. In 1795, if two thirds of the qualified voters deſire, a convention ſhall be called to reviſe the conſtitution.

History.] See Hutchinſon's Hiſtory of Maſſachuſetts—Minot's Hiſtory of the Inſurrection in Maſſachuſetts—The Publications of the Hiſtorical Society, in the American Apollo—-Hazard's Hiſtorical Collections—-Chalmer's Political Annals, and Gough's Hiſtory of the People called Quakers.

RHODE ISLAND, AND PROVIDENCE PLANTATIONS.

Situation and Extent.

	Miles.		
Length	68	between	3° and 4° E. Long.
Breadth	40		41° and 42° N. Lat.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED north and eaſt, by the Commonwealth of Maſſachuſetts; ſouth, by the Atlantic; weſt, by Connecticut. Theſe limits comprehend what is called Rhode Iſland and Providence Plantations.

Civil Divisions and Population.] This State is divided into five counties, which are ſubdivided into 30 townſhips, as follows:

Counties.

Counties.	Towns.	No. of Inhabitants.	Slaves.	No. in each County.
Newport	Newport	6716	223	14,300
	Portſmouth	1560	17	
	New Shoreham	682	47	
	Jameſtown	507	16	
	Middletown	840	15	
	Tivertown	2453	25	
	Little Compton	1542	23	
Providence	Providence	6380	48	24,391
	Smithfield	3171	5	
	Scituate	2315	6	
	Glouceſter	4025	1	
	Cumberland	1964		
	Cranſton	1877	10	
	Johnſton	1320	3	
	North Providence	1071	5	
	Foſter	2268	4	
Washington	Weſterly	2298	10	18,075
	North Kingſton	2907	96	
	South Kingſton	4131	175	
	Charleſtown	2022	12	
	Exeter	2495	37	
	Richmond	1760	2	
	Hopkinton	2462	7	
Briſtol	Briſtol	1406	64	3,211
	Warren	1122	22	
	Barrington	683	12	
Kent	Warwick	2493	35	8,848
	Eaſt Greenwich	1824	13	
	Weſt Greenwich	2054	10	
	Coventry	2477	5	
Total five	Thirty	67877	948	68,825

The number of inhabitants in Rhode Iſland and Providence Plantations was in the year

1730	15,352 Whites 2,633 Blacks	1748	29,755 Whites 4,373 Blacks	1761	35,939 Whites 4,697 Blacks
1774	54,435 Whites 5,243 Blacks	1783	48,538 Whites 3,361 Blacks	1790	67,877 Whites 948 Blacks

Bays, Harbours, and Islands.] Narraganſet Bay makes up from ſouth to north, between the main land on the eaſt and weſt. It emboſoms many fertile iſlands, the principal of which are Rhode Iſland, Canonnicut, Prudence, Patience, Hope, Dyer's and Hog iſlands.

The harbours are, Newport, Providence, Wickford, Patuxet, Warren, and Briſtol.

Rhode Iſland, from which the State takes half its name, is 13 miles in length; its average breadth is about four miles. It is divided into three townſhips, Newport, Portſmouth, and Middletown. This iſland, in point of ſoil, climate, and ſituation,

may be ranked among the fineſt and moſt charming in the world. In its moſt flouriſhing ſtate, it was called by travellers the *Eden* of America. But the change which the ravages of war, and a decreaſe of buſineſs, have effected, is great and melancholy. Some of the moſt ornamental country ſeats were deſtroyed, and their fine groves, orchards, and fruit-trees, wantonly cut down; and the gloom of its preſent decayed ſtate is heightened by its charming natural ſituation, and by reflecting upon its former glory. The farming intereſt ſuffered far leſs injury than the commercial city of Newport, and has nearly recovered its former ſtate—Between 30,000 and 40,000 ſheep are fed on this iſland, beſides neat cattle and horſes.

Canonnicut Iſland lies weſt of Rhode Iſland, and is ſix miles in length, and about one mile in breadth. It was purchaſed of the Indians in 1657, and incorporated by act of aſſembly by the name of the Iſland of Jameſtown, in 1678.

Block Iſland, called by the Indians, Maniſſes, is 21 miles S. S. W. from Newport, and is the ſouthernmoſt land belonging to the State. It was erected into a townſhip, by the name of New Shoreham, in 1672. The inhabitants of this iſland were formerly noted for making good cheeſe. They catch conſiderable quantities of cod fiſh round the ledges near the iſland.

Prudence Iſland is nearly or quite as large as Canonnicut, and lies north of it, and is a part of the townſhip of Portſmouth.

Rivers.] Providence and Taunton rivers both fall into Narraganſet bay, the former on the weſt, the latter on the eaſt ſide of Rhode Iſland. Providence river riſes partly in Maſſachuſetts, and is navigable as far as Providence for ſhips of 900 tons, 30 miles from the ſea. Taunton river is navigable for ſmall veſſels to Taunton. Common tides riſe about four feet.

Fall river is ſmall, riſing in Freetown, and paſſing through Tivertown. The line between the States of Maſſachuſetts and Rhode Iſland paſſes Fall river bridge. Patuxet river riſes in Maſhapog pond, and five miles below Providence, empties into Narraganſet bay. Pawtucket river, called more northerly Blackſtone's river, empties into Seekhonck river, four miles N. N. E. from Providence, where are the falls hereafter deſcribed, over which is a bridge, on the poſt-road to Boſton, and 40 miles from thence. The confluent ſtream empties into Providence river, about a mile below Wayboſſett, or the great bridge. Naſpatucket river falls into the bay about one mile and a half N. W. of Wayboſſett bridge. Moſhaſſuck river falls into the ſame bay, three-fourths of a mile north of the bridge. Theſe rivers united form Providence river, which, a few miles below the town, receives the name of Narraganſet bay, and affords fine fiſh, oyſters, and lobſters in great plenty.

Climate.] Rhode Iſland is as healthful a country as any part of North America. The winters in the maritime parts of the State are milder than in the inland country; the air being ſoftened by a ſea vapour, which alſo enriches the ſoil. The ſummers are delightful, eſpecially on Rhode Iſland, where the extreme heats, which prevail in other parts of America, are allayed by cool and refreſhing breezes from the ſea.

Fishes.] In the rivers and bays is plenty of ſheeps-head, black-fiſh, herring, ſhad, lobſters, oyſters, and clams; and around the ſhores of Rhode Iſland, beſides thoſe already mentioned, are cod, halibut, mackerel, baſs, haddock, &c. &c. to the amount of more than ſeventy different kinds, ſo that in the ſeaſons of fiſh, the markets are alive with them. Travellers are agreed that Newport furniſhes the beſt fiſh-market in the world.

Religion.] The conſtitution of the State admits of no religious eſtabliſhments, any further than depends upon the voluntary choice of individuals. All men profeſſing

ſeſſing one Supreme Being, are equally protected by the laws, and no particular ſect can claim pre-eminence. This unlimited liberty in religion is one principal cauſe why there is ſuch a variety of religious ſects in Rhode Iſland. The Baptiſts are the moſt numerous of any denomination in the State. Theſe, as well as the other Baptiſts in New England, are chiefly upon the Calviniſtic plan as to doctrines, and independents in regard to church government. There are, however, ſome, who profeſs the Arminian tenets, and are called Arminian Baptiſts. Others obſerve the Jewiſh, or Saturday Sabbath, from a perſuaſion that it was one of the ten commandments, which they plead are all in their nature moral, and were never abrogated in the New Teſtament, and muſt, at leaſt, be deemed of equal validity for public worſhip as any day particularly ſet apart by Jeſus Chriſt and his Apoſtles. Theſe are called Sabbatarian, or Seventh-day Baptiſts. There are others, who are called Separate Baptiſts.

The other religious denominations in Rhode Iſland are, Congregationaliſts, Friends or Quakers, Epiſcopalians, Moravians, and Jews. Beſides theſe, there is a conſiderable number of the people, who can be reduced to no particular denomination.

In many towns, public worſhip is too much neglected by the greater part of the inhabitants. They pay no taxes for the ſupport of eccleſiaſtics of any denomination; and a peculiarity which diſtinguiſhes this State from every other proteſtant country in the known world is, that no contract formed by the miniſter with his people, for his ſalary, is valid in law: ſo that miniſters are dependent wholly on the integrity of the people for their ſupport, ſince their ſalaries are not recoverable by law. It ought in juſtice, however, to be obſerved, that the clergy in general are liberally maintained, and none who merit it have reaſon to complain for want of ſupport.

LITERATURE.] The literature of this State is confined principally to the towns of Newport and Providence. There are men of learning and abilities ſcattered through other towns, but they are rare. The bulk of the inhabitants, in other parts of the State, are involved in greater ignorance, perhaps, than in moſt other parts of New England. An impartial hiſtory of their tranſactions ſince the peace, would evince the truth of the above obſervations.

At Providence is Rhode Iſland college. The charter for founding this ſeminary of learning was granted by the general aſſembly of the State, by the name of the "Truſtees and Fellows of the College or Univerſity, in the Engliſh colony of Rhode Iſland and Providence Plantations,"* in 1764, in conſequence of the petition of a large number of the moſt reſpectable characters in the State. By the charter, the corporation of the college conſiſts of two ſeparate branches, with diſtinct, ſeparate, and reſpective powers. The number of truſtees is thirty-ſix, of whom twenty-two are of the denomination called Baptiſts, five of the denomination of Friends, five Epiſcopalians, and four Congregationaliſts. The ſame proportion of the different denominations to continue *in perpetuum*. The number of the fellows (incluſive of the preſident, who is a fellow *ex officio*) is twelve, of whom eight are Baptiſts, the others choſen indiſcriminately from any denomination. The concurrence of both branches, by a majority of each, is neceſſary for the validity of an act, except adjudging and conferring degrees, which excluſively belongs to the fellowſhip as a learned faculty. The preſident muſt be a Baptiſt: profeſſors and other officers of inſtruction are not limited to any particular denomination. There is annually a general meeting of the corporation, on the firſt Wedneſday in September, at which time the public commencement is held.

* This name to be altered when any generous benefactor ariſes, which by his liberal donation ſhall entitle himſelf to the honour of giving the college a name.

This

This inſtitution was firſt founded at Warren, in the county of Briſtol, and the firſt commencement held there in 1769.

In the year 1770, the college was removed to Providence, where a large, elegant building was erected for its accommodation, by the generous donations of individuals, moſtly from the town of Providence. It is ſituated on a hill to the eaſt of the town; and while its elevated ſituation renders it delightful, by commanding an extenſive, variegated proſpect, it furniſhes it with a pure, ſalubrious air. The edifice is of brick, four ſtories high, 150 feet long, and 46 wide, with a projection of ten feet each ſide. It has an entry lengthwiſe, with rooms on each ſide. There are 48 rooms for the accommodation of ſtudents, and eight larger ones for public uſes. The roof is covered with ſlate.

From December 1776, to June 1782, the college edifice was uſed by the French and American troops for an hoſpital and barracks, ſo that the courſe of education was interrupted during that period. No degrees were conferred from 1776 to 1786. From 1786, the college again became regular, and is now very flouriſhing, containing upwards of ſixty ſtudents.

This inſtitution is under the inſtruction of a preſident, a profeſſor of divinity, a profeſſor of natural and experimental philoſophy, a profeſſor of mathematics and aſtronomy, a profeſſor of natural hiſtory, and three tutors. The inſtitution has a library, of between two and three thouſand volumes, containing a valuable philoſophical apparatus. Nearly all the funds of the college are at intereſt in the treaſury of the State, and amount to almoſt 2000l.

At Newport there is a flouriſhing academy, under the direction of a rector and tutors, who teach the learned languages, Engliſh grammar, geography, &c.

Societies.] A marine ſociety was eſtabliſhed at Newport in 1752, for the purpoſe of relieving diſtreſſed widows and orphans of maritime brethren, and ſuch of their ſociety as may need aſſiſtance.

The Providence ſociety for promoting the abolition of ſlavery, for the relief of perſons unlawfully held in bondage, and for improving the condition of the African race, commenced in 1789, and was incorporated the year following. It conſiſts of upwards of 150 members, part of whom belong to the State of Maſſachuſetts.

Mountain.] In the town of Briſtol is Mount Hope, or as ſome call it, Mount Haup, which is remarkable only for its having been the ſeat of King Philip, and the place where he was killed.

Bridges.] The great bridge in the town of Providence, formerly called Weyboſſet, from a high hill of that name, which ſtood near the weſt end of the bridge, but which is now removed, and its baſe built upon, is the only bridge of conſiderable note in this State. It is 160 feet long, and 22 feet wide, ſupported by two wooden treſſels and two ſtone pillars. It unites the eaſtern and weſtern parts of the town, and is a place of reſort in ſummer, affording a pleaſant proſpect of all veſſels entering and leaving the harbour. This is not a toll-bridge.

The bridge over Patucket Falls is a work of conſiderable magnitude, and much ingenuity.

The aſſembly of this State, in their ſeſſion of May 1792, paſſed an act incorporating three companies, for the purpoſe of erecting three bridges—one over the upper, and another over the lower ferry of Seekhonk river, and a third over Howland ferry, which would unite Rhode Iſland with Tiverton on the main; the two former will greatly accommodate the town of Providence—the latter muſt prove highly advantageous to the people of Newport and others on Rhode Iſland. To ſuch works of utility and enterpriſe every good man wiſhes ſucceſs.

Soil

SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.] This State, generally ſpeaking, is a country for paſture and not for grain. It however produces corn, rye, barley, oats, and in ſome parts wheat, ſufficient for home conſumption; and the various kinds of graſſes, fruits, and culinary roots and plants in great abundance, and in good perfection; cider is made for exportation. The north-weſtern parts of the State are but thinly inhabited, and are more rocky and barren than the other parts. The tract of country lying between South Kingſton and the Connecticut line, called the Narraganſet country, is excellent grazing land, and is inhabited by a number of large and wealthy farmers, who raiſe ſome of the fineſt neat cattle in New England, weighing from 1600 to 1800 weight. They keep large dairies, and make butter and cheeſe of the beſt quality and in large quantities for exportation. Narraganſet has been famed for an excellent breed of pacing horſes, remarkable for their ſpeed and hardineſs for enduring the fatigues of a journey; this breed of horſes has much depreciated of late, the beſt mares having been purchaſed by the people from the weſtward.

TRADE.] Before the war, the merchants in Rhode Iſland imported from Great Britain, dry goods—from Africa, ſlaves—from the Weſt Indies, ſugars, coffees, and molaſſes—and from the neighbouring colonies, lumber and proviſions. With the bills which they obtained in Surinam and other Dutch Weſt India Iſlands, they paid their merchants in England; their ſugars they carried to Holland; the ſlaves from Africa, they carried to the Weſt Indies, together with the lumber and proviſions procured from their neighbours; the rum diſtilled from the molaſſes was carried to Africa to purchaſe negroes; with their dry goods from England they trafficked with the neighbouring colonies. By this kind of circuitous commerce, they ſubſiſted and grew rich. But the war, and ſome other events, have had a great, and in moſt reſpects, an injurious effect upon the trade of this State. The ſlave trade, which was a ſource of wealth to many of the people in Newport, and in other parts of the State, has happily been aboliſhed. The legiſlature have paſſed a law prohibiting ſhips from going to Africa for ſlaves, and ſelling them in the Weſt India Iſlands; and the oath of one ſeaman, belonging to the ſhip, is ſufficient evidence of the fact. This law is more favourable to the cauſe of humanity than to the temporal intereſts of the merchants who had been engaged in this inhuman traffick. The town of Briſtol carries on a conſiderable trade to Africa, the Weſt Indies, and to different parts of the United States: but by far the greateſt part of the commerce of this State is at preſent carried on by the inhabitants of the flouriſhing town of Providence. In June 1791, there were belonging to this port

			Tons.	95 parts.
11	Ships,	containing	3,066	54
35	Brigs	-	4,266	48
1	Snow	-	141	
1	Polecre	-	101	
25	Schooners	-	1,320	21
56	Sloops	-	3,047	56
Total 129	ſail,	containing	11,942	84

The preſent exports from the State are flax-ſeed, lumber, horſes, cattle, beef, pork, fiſh, poultry, onions, butter, cheeſe, barley, grain, ſpirits, and cotton and linen goods. The imports conſiſts of European and Weſt India goods, and logwood from the Bay of Honduras. Upwards of 600 veſſels enter and clear annually at the different ports in this State. The amount of exports from this State to foreign countries, for one year, ending the 30th of September 1791, was 470,131 dollars 9 cents.

LIGHT HOUSE.] For the ſafety and convenience of ſailing into the Narraganſet Bay and harbour of Newport, a light houſe was erected in 1749, in Beavertail, at the ſouth end of Canonnicut Iſland.

The diameter at the baſe is 24 feet, and at the top 13 feet. The height from the ground to the top of the cornice is 58 feet, round which is a gallery, and within that ſtands the lanthorn, which is about 11 feet high, and 8 feet in diameter.

The ground the light houſe ſtands upon is about 12 feet above the ſurface of the ſea at high water.

MANUFACTURES.] The inhabitants of this State are progreſſing rapidly in this branch of buſineſs. A cotton manufactory has been erected at Providence, which from preſent proſpects will anſwer the expectations of the proprietors. The warps are ſpun by water with a machine, which is an improvement of Mr. Arkwright's; and ſtrong, ſmooth and excellent yarn, is thus made both for warps and ſtockings. The filling of the cotton goods is ſpun with jennies. In theſe ſeveral works five carding machines are employed, and a calender, conſtructed after the European manner. Jeans, fuſtians, denims, thickſets, velvets, &c. &c. are here manufactured and ſent to the ſouthern States. Large quantities of linen and tow cloth are made in different parts of this State for exportation. But the moſt conſiderable manufactures in this State are thoſe of iron, ſuch as bar and ſheet iron, ſteel, nail rods and nails, implements of huſbandry, ſtoves, pots, and other houſhold utenſils; the iron work of ſhipping, anchors, bells &c. The other manufactures of this State are rum, corn, ſpirits, chocolate, paper, wool and cotton cards, &c. beſide domeſtic manufactures for family uſe, which, in this, in common with the other States, amount to a vaſt ſum which cannot be aſcertained.

MINERALS, FOSSILS, &c.] Iron ore is found in great plenty in ſeveral parts of the State. The iron works on Patuxet river, twelve miles from Providence, are ſupplied with ore from a bed four miles and a half diſtant, which lies in a valley, through which runs a brook. The brook is turned into a new channel, and the ore pits are cleared of water by a ſteam engine, conſtructed and made at the furnace, by, and under the direction, of the late Joſeph Brown, Eſq. of Providence, which continues a very uſeful monument of his mechanical genius. At this ore bed are a variety of ores, curious ſtones, and ochres.

At Diamond Hill, in the county of Providence, which is ſo called from its ſparkling and ſhining appearance, there are a variety of peculiar ſtones, more curious than uſeful. Not far from this hill, in the townſhip of Cumberland, is a copper mine, mixed with iron ſtrongly impregnated with loadſtone, of which ſome large pieces have been found in the neighbourhood. No method has yet been diſcovered to work it to advantage.

An abundance of limeſtone is found in this State, particularly in the county of Providence, of which large quantities of lime are made and exported. This limeſtone is of different colours, and is the true marble, both of the white, plain, and variegated. It takes a fine poliſh, and works equal to any in America.

There are ſeveral mineral ſprings in this State; to one of which, near Providence, many people reſort to bathe and drink the water.

CHIEF TOWNS.] Newport and Providence are the two principal towns in the State. Newport lies in lat. 41° 35′. This town was firſt ſettled by Mr. William Coddington, afterwards governor, and the father of Rhode Iſland, with ſeventeen others, in 1639. Its harbour, which is one of the fineſt in the world, ſpreads weſtward before the town. The entrance is eaſy and ſafe, and a large fleet may anchor

in

in it and ride in perfect ſecurity. It is probable this may, in ſome future period, become one of the man of war ports of the American Empire. The town lies north and ſouth upon a gradual aſcent as you proceed eaſtward from the water, and exhibits a beautiful view from the harbour, and from the neighbouring hills which lie weſtward upon the main. Weſt of the town is Goat Iſland, on which is a fort. Between this iſland and Rhode Iſland is the harbour. Front or water ſtreet is a mile in length.

Newport contains about 1000 houſes, built chiefly of wood. It has nine houſes for public worſhip: three for the Baptiſts, two for Congregationaliſts, one for Epiſcopalians, one for Quakers, one for Moravians, and a ſynagogue for the Jews. The other public buildings are a ſtate-houſe, and an edifice for the public library. The ſituation, form, and architecture of the ſtate-houſe, give it a pleaſing appearance. It ſtands ſufficiently elevated, and a long wharf and paved parade lead up to it from the harbour.

The prohibition of the ſlave trade, the deſtructive influence of paper money (which has now, however, ceaſed to operate) combined with the devaſtation of a cruel war, have occaſioned a ſtagnation of buſineſs which is truly melancholy and diſtreſſing. This city, far famed for the beauty of its ſituation, the ſalubrity of its climate, and the hoſpitality and politeneſs of its inhabitants, and which was the place of reſort for invalids from a great diſtance, now wears the gloomy aſpect of decay. Thouſands of its inhabitants are almoſt deſtitute of employment. This circumſtance, together with that of there being a great abundance of raw materials in the vicinity, ſtrongly mark out this city as a convenient and proper ſituation for extenſive manufactures. Should the gentlemen of fortune turn their capitals into this channel, it is thought that they would not only derive a profit to themſelves, but be inſtrumental in giving employment and bread to thouſands of now unhappy people, and of reviving the former importance of their beautiful city.

The excellent accommodations and regulations of the numerous packets which belong to this port, and which ply thence to Providence and New York, ought not to paſs unnoticed. They are ſaid to be ſuperior to any thing of the kind in Europe. The appearance of the iſlands in Narraganſet Bay, and of the circumjacent country, in the ſpring and ſummer ſeaſons, either from the land or water, is extremely beautiful and charming.

Providence, ſituated in lat. 41° 51′ on both ſides of Providence river, is 35 miles from the ſea, and 30 N. by W. from Newport. It is the oldeſt town in the State. Roger Williams, and his company, were its firſt ſettlers in 1636.

This town is divided into two parts by the river, and connected by the bridge already deſcribed. Ships of almoſt any ſize ſail up and down the channel, which is marked out by ſtakes, erected at points, ſhoals, and beds lying in the river; ſo that ſtrangers may come up to the town without a pilot. A ſhip of 950 tons, for the Eaſt India trade, was lately built in this town, and fitted for ſea. In 1764 there were belonging to the county of Providence, 54 ſail of veſſels, containing 4,320 tons. In 1791, they had 129 ſail, containing 11,942 tons.

This town ſuffered much by the Indian war of 1675, when a number of its inhabitants removed to Rhode iſland for ſhelter. In the late war the caſe was reverſed; many of the inhabitants of that Iſland removed to Providence.

The public buildings are, an elegant meeting houſe for Baptiſts, 80 feet ſquare, with a lofty and beautiful ſteeple and a large bell, caſt at the Furnace, Hope in Scituate—a meeting houſe for Friends or Quakers, two for Congregationaliſts,

an epiſcopal church, a handſome court-houſe, 70 feet by 40, in which is depoſited a library for the uſe of the inhabitants of the town and country—a work-houſe, a market-houſe 80 feet long and 40 feet wide, and a brick ſchool-houſe, in which four ſchools are kept. The college edifice we have already mentioned. The houſes in this town are generally built of wood, though there are ſome brick buildings which are large and elegant. At a convenient diſtance from the town an hoſpital for the ſmall-pox, and other diſeaſes, has been erected. There are two ſpermaceti works, a number of diſtilleries, ſugar-houſes, and other manufactories. Several forts were erected in and near Providence during the late war, which, however, are not kept in repair. This town has an extenſive trade with Maſſachuſetts, Connecticut, and part of Vermont; and from its advantageous ſituation, promiſes to be among the largeſt towns in New England. It ſends four repreſentatives to the General Aſſembly—the other towns in the county ſend but two.

Briſtol is a pleaſant thriving town, about 16 miles north of Newport, on the main: part of the town was deſtroyed by the Britiſh, but it has ſince been rebuilt: it has an epiſcopal and a congregational church. This town is noted for raiſing large quantities of onion and other roots. A number of veſſels are owned by the inhabitants, and they carry on a conſiderable trade to Africa, the Weſt Indies, and to different parts of the United States.

Warren is alſo a flouriſhing town---trades to the Weſt Indies and other places, and builds ſhips.

Little Compton, called by the Indians *Seconnet*, is ſaid to be the beſt cultivated township in the State, and affords a greater ſupply of proviſions for market, ſuch as meats of the ſeveral kinds, butter, cheeſe, vegetables, &c. than any other town of its ſize. The inhabitants, who are an induſtrious and ſober people, and in theſe reſpects an example worthy the notice and imitation of their brethren in ſome other parts of the State, manufacture linen and tow cloth, flannels, &c. of an excellent quality, and in conſiderable quantities for ſale.

Eaſt Greenwich and Warwick are noted for making good cyder, and formerly for raiſing tobacco for exportation.

INDIANS.] A few years ſince there we about 500 Indians in this State: the greater part of them reſide at Charleſtown: they are peaceable and well-diſpoſed towards government, and ſpeak the Engliſh language.

CURIOSITIES.] About four miles north-eaſt of Providence lies a ſmall village, called Pautucket, a place of ſome trade, and famous for lamprey eels. Through this village runs Pautucket river, which empties into Seekhonk river at this place. In this river is a beautiful fall of water, directly over which a bridge has been built, which divides the Commonwealth of Maſſachuſetts from the State of Rhode Iſland. The fall, in its whole length, is upwards of fifty feet: the water paſſes through ſeveral chaſms in a rock which runs diametrically acroſs the bed of the ſtream, and ſerves as a dam to the water. Several mills have been erected upon theſe falls; and the ſpouts and channels which have been conſtructed to conduct the ſtreams to their reſpective wheels, and the bridge, have taken very much from the beauty and grandeur of the ſcene; which would otherwiſe have been indeſcribably charming and romantic.

In the town of Middletown, on Rhode Iſland, about two miles from Newport, is a place called Purgatory; it joins to the ſea on the eaſt ſide of the iſland: it is a large cavity or opening, in a high bed of rocks, about twelve feet in diameter at top; and about forty feet deep before you reach the water, of which, as it joins the ſea, it has always

always a large depth. The rocks on each ſide appear to have been once united, and were probably ſeparated by ſome convulſion in nature.

CONSTITUTION.] The conſtitution of this State is founded on the charter granted by Charles II. in 1663; and the frame of government was not eſſentially altered by the revolution. The legiſlature of this State conſiſts of two branches---a ſenate or upper houſe, compoſed of ten members, beſides the governor and deputy-governor, called, in the charter, *aſſiſtants*---and a houſe of repreſentatives, compoſed of deputies from the ſeveral towns. The members of the legiſlature are choſen twice a year; and there are two ſeſſions of this body annually, viz. on the firſt Wedneſday in May, and the laſt Wedneſday in October.

The ſupreme executive power is veſted in a governor, or, in his abſence, in the deputy-governor, who, with the aſſiſtants, ſecretary, and general treaſurer, are choſen annually in May by the ſuffrages of the people. The governor preſides in the upper houſe, but has only a ſingle voice in enacting laws.

There is one ſupreme judicial court, compoſed of five judges, whoſe juriſdiction extends over the whole State, and who hold two courts annually in each county.

In each county there is an inferior court of common pleas and general ſeſſions of the peace, held twice a year for the trial of cauſes, not capital, ariſing within the county, from which an appeal lies to the ſupreme court.

HISTORY.] This State was firſt ſettled from Maſſachuſetts. Motives of the ſame kind with thoſe which are well known to have occaſioned the ſettlement of moſt of the other United States, gave birth to this. The emigrants from England who came to Maſſachuſetts, though they did not perfectly agree in religious ſentiments, had been tolerably united by their common zeal againſt the ceremonies of the church of England. But as ſoon as they were removed from eccleſiaſtical courts, and poſſeſſed of a patent allowing liberty of conſcience, they fell into diſputes and contentions among themſelves: and notwithſtanding all their ſufferings and complaints in England, excited by the principle of uniformity, ſuch is human nature, the majority here were as fond of this principle, as thoſe from whoſe perſecution they had fled.

The true grounds of religious liberty were not embraced or underſtood at this time by any ſect. While all diſclaimed perſecution for the ſake of conſcience, a regard for the public peace and for the preſervation of the church of Chriſt from infection, together with the obſtinacy of the Hereticks, was urged in juſtification of that, which, ſtripped of all its diſguiſes, the light of nature and the laws of Chriſt in the moſt ſolemn manner condemn.

Mr. Roger Williams, a miniſter who came over to New England in 1631, was charged with holding a variety of errors, and was on that account forced to leave his houſe, land, wife and children, at Salem, in the dead of winter, and to ſeek a reſidence without the limits of Maſſachuſetts. Governor Winthrop adviſed him to purſue his courſe to Nehiganſet, or Narraganſet Bay, which he did, and fixed himſelf at Secunk, or Seekhonk now Rehoboth: but that place being within the bounds of Plymouth colony, Governor Winſlow, in a friendly manner, adviſed him to remove to the other ſide of the river, where the lands were not covered by any patent. Accordingly in 1636, Mr. Williams, and four others, croſſed Seekhonk river, and landed among the Indians, by whom they were hoſpitably received, and thus laid the foundation of a town, which, from a ſenſe of God's merciful providence to him, he called Providence. Here he was ſoon after joined by a number of others, and though they were ſecured from the Indians by the terror of the Engliſh, yet they, for a conſiderable time,

ſuffered much from fatigue and want; but they enjoyed liberty of conſcience, which has ever ſince been inviolably maintained in this State.

The unhappy diviſions and contentions in Maſſachuſetts ſtill prevailed, and in the year 1636, Governor Winthrop ſtrove to exterminate the opinions which he diſapproved: accordingly, a Synod was called at Newtown (now Cambridge) on the 30th of Auguſt, when eighty erroneous opinions were preſented, debated, and condemned; and a court holden in October following, at the ſame place, baniſhed a few leading perſons of thoſe accuſed of theſe errors, and cenſured ſeveral others; not, it ſeems, for holding theſe opinions, but for ſeditious conduct. The diſputes which occaſioned this diſturbance, were about the ſame points as the five queſtions debated between the Synod and Mr. Cotton, which are thus deſcribed by Dr. Mather: They were, "about the order of things in our union to our Lord Jeſus Chriſt; about the influence of our faith in the application of his righteouſneſs; about the uſe of our ſanctification in evidencing our juſtification; and about the conſideration of our Lord Jeſus Chriſt by men yet under a covenant of works; briefly, they were about the points whereupon depends the grounds of our aſſurance of bleſſedneſs in a better world."*

The whole colony of Maſſachuſetts at this time was in a violent ferment. The election of civil officers was carried by a party ſpirit, excited by religious diſſenſion. Thoſe who were baniſhed by the court, joined by a number of their friends, went in queſt of a new ſettlement, and came to Providence, where they were kindly entertained by Mr. R. Williams; who, by the aſſiſtance of Sir Henry Vane, jun. procured for them, from the Indians, Aquidnick, now Rhode Iſland. Here, in 1638, the people, eighteen in number, formed themſelves into a body politic, and choſe Mr. Coddington, their leader, to be their judge or chief magiſtrate. This ſame year the Sachems ſigned the deed or grant of the iſland; for which *Indian gift*, it is ſaid, they paid very dearly, by being obliged to make repeated purchaſes of the ſame lands from ſeveral claimants.

The other parts of the State were purchaſed of the natives at ſeveral ſucceſſive periods.

In the year 1643, the people being deſtitute of a patent or any legal authority, Mr. Williams went to England as agent; and, by the aſſiſtance of Sir Henry Vane, jun. obtained by the Earl of Warwick (then governor and admiral of all the plantations) and his council, "a free and abſolute charter of civil incorporation of Providence Plantations, in Narraganſet Bay." This laſted until the charter granted by Charles II. in 1663, by which the incorporation was ſtiled, "the Engliſh colony of Rhode Iſland, and Providence Plantations in New England." This charter, without any eſſential alteration, has remained the foundation of their government ever ſince.

As the original inhabitants of this State were perſecuted for the ſake of conſcience, a moſt liberal and free toleration was eſtabliſhed by them. So little has the civil authority to do with religion here, that, as has been already hinted, no contract between a miniſter and a ſociety (unleſs incorporated for that purpoſe) is of any force. It is probably for theſe reaſons that ſo many different ſects have ever been found here; and that the Sabbath, and all religious inſtitutions, have been more neglected in this than in any other of the New England States. Mr. Williams became a Baptiſt in a few years after his ſettling at Providence, and was active in forming a church of that perſuaſion in 1639, but ceaſed to walk with it the following year. This church, in 1653, diſagreed about the rite of laying on of hands, ſome holding it neceſſary to church communion, others eſteeming it indifferent; upon which the church divided. At Newport,

* Mag. B. 7. 17.

Newport, Mr. John Clark and ſome others formed a church, in 1644, on the principles of the Baptiſts; which church was afterwards divided like that at Providence.

In 1700 the Friends or Quakers meeting-houſe was built in Newport: their yearly meeting, till Governor Coddington's death, was held in his houſe, and he died a member of that body in 1688.

In 1720 there was a Congregational church gathered at Newport, and the Reverend Nathaniel Clap was ordained its paſtor. Out of this church another was formed in 1728. The worſhip of God, according to the rites of the church of England, was inſtituted here in 1706, by the Society for propagating the goſpel in foreign parts. And in 1738, there were ſeven worſhipping aſſemblies in this town, and a large ſociety of Quakers at Portſmouth, at the other end of the iſland.

In 1630 the colony was filled with inhabitants, and chiefly by the natural increaſe of the ſettlers. The number of ſouls in the State at this time was 17,935, of which no more than 985 were Indians, and 1648 Negroes.

In 1738, there were above one hundred ſail of veſſels belonging to Newport.

The colony of Rhode Iſland, from its local ſituation, has ever been leſs expoſed to the incurſions of the neighbouring Indians, and from the French from Canada, than their neighbours in Maſſachuſetts and Connecticut. Many of the colony have, from its firſt eſtabliſhment, profeſſed the principles of the Quakers, which forbad them to fight: for theſe reaſons, the colony has been very little concerned in the old wars with the French and Indians. In the expedition againſt Port Royal in 1710, and in the abortive attempt againſt Canada in 1711, they had ſome forces. Towards the intended expedition againſt Canada, in 1746, they raiſed 300 men, and equipped a ſloop of war with 100 ſeamen; but in their voyage to Nova Scotia they met with misfortunes and returned. Soon after, the deſign was dropped.

Throughout the whole of the late war with Great Britain, the inhabitants of this State have manifeſted a patriotic ſpirit; their troops have behaved gallantly, and they are honoured in having produced the ſecond general in the field.*

CONNECTICUT.

Situation and Extent.

	Miles.			
Length	82	between	41°	and 42° 2′ N. Latitude.
Breadth	57		1° 50′	and 3° 20′ E. Longitude.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED north, by Maſſachuſetts; eaſt, by Rhode Iſland; ſouth, by the Sound, which divides it from Long Iſland; weſt, by the State of New York.

The diviſional line between Connecticut and Maſſachuſetts, as ſettled in 1713, was found to be about ſeventy-two miles in length. The line dividing Connecticut from Rhode Iſland was ſettled in 1728, and found to be about 45 miles. The ſea coaſt, from the mouth of Paukatuk river, which forms a part of the eaſtern boundary of Connecticut, in a direct ſouth-weſterly line to the mouth of Byram river, is reckoned at about ninety miles. The line between Connecticut and New York runs from latitude

* General Green.

tude 41° to latitude 42° 2′; 72 miles. Connecticut contains about 4,674 ſquare miles, equal to about 2,640,000 acres.

Civil Divisions.] Connecticut is divided into eight counties, and about 100 townſhips. Each townſhip is a corporation, inveſted with power to hold lands, chooſe their own town officers, to make prudential laws, the penalty of tranſgreſſion not to exceed twenty ſhillings, and to chooſe their own repreſentatives to the General Aſſembly. The townſhips are generally divided into two or more pariſhes, in each of which is one or more places for public worſhip, and ſchool-houſes at convenient diſtances.

The names of the counties, their chief towns, and population, in 1790, were as follows:

Counties.	Tot. No. Inhab.	No. Fema.	Slaves.	Chief Towns.
Hartford -	38,029	18,714	263	Hartford.
New Haven -	30,830	15,258	433	New Haven.
New London -	33,200	16,478	586	New London. Norwich.
Fairfield -	36,250	17,541	797	Fairfield. Danbury.
Windham -	28,921	14,406	184	Windham.
Litchfield -	38,755	18,909	233	Litchfield.
Middleſex -	18,855	9,632	221	Middleton. Haddam.
Tolland -	13,106	6,510	47	Tolland.
Total Eight	237,946	117,448	2,764	

Rivers.] The principal rivers in this State are Connecticut, Houſatonick, the Thames, and their branches. Under the heads of New Hampſhire and Maſſachuſetts we have already deſcribed Connecticut river till it enters this State: ſoon after it enters the bounds of Connecticut it paſſes over Enfield falls, to render which navigable for boats, a company has been conſtituted, and a ſum of money raiſed by lottery. At Windſor it receives Windſor Ferry river from the weſt, which is formed by the junction of Farmingham and Poquabock rivers. At Hartford it meets the tide, and thence flows, in a crooked channel, into Long Iſland ſound. It is from 80 to 100 rods wide, 130 miles from its mouth.

At its mouth is a bar of ſand which conſiderably obſtructs the navigation. Ten feet water at full tides is found on this bar, and the ſame depth to Middleton: the diſtance of the bar from this place, as the river runs, is thirty-ſix miles. Above Middleton are ſeveral ſhoals which ſtretch quite acroſs the river: only ſix feet water is found on the ſhoal at high tide, and here the tide ebbs and flows but about eight inches. About three miles below Middleton the river is contracted to about 40 rods in breadth by two high mountains: almoſt every where elſe the banks are low, and ſpread into fine extenſive meadows: in the ſpring floods, which generally happen in May, theſe meadows are covered with water. At Hartford, the water ſometimes riſes twenty feet above the common ſurface of the river, and having all to paſs through the above-mentioned ſtreight, it is ſometimes two or three weeks before it returns to its uſual bed. Theſe floods add nothing to the depth of water on the bar at the mouth of the river; this bar lying too far off in the ſound to be affected by them.

On this beautiful river, whoſe banks are ſettled almoſt to its ſource, are many pleaſant, neat, well-built towns. On its weſtern bank, from its mouth northward, are

the towns of Saybrook, Haddam, Middleton, Weathersfield, Hartford, Windſor, and Suffield. On its eaſtern bank, as you aſcend the river, are Lyme, Eaſt Haddam, Glaſtenbury, Eaſt Hartford, Eaſt Windſor, and Enfield.

This river is navigable to Hartford, upwards of fifty miles from its mouth, and the produce of the country for two hundred miles above is brought thither in boats: the boats which are uſed in this buſineſs are flat-bottomed, long and narrow, for the convenience of going up ſtream, and of ſo light a make as to be portable in carts: they are taken out of the river at three different carrying places, all of which make fifteen miles. Theſe obſtructions will in a few years, it is probable, be all removed.

Sturgeon, ſalmon, and ſhad, are caught in plenty in their ſeaſon, from the mouth of the river upwards, excepting ſturgeon, which do not aſcend the upper falls; beſides a variety of ſmall fiſh, ſuch as pike, carp, perch, &c.

From this river were employed, in 1789, three brigs of one hundred and eighty tons each, in the European trade; and about ſixty ſail, from ſixty to one hundred and fifty tons, in the Weſt India trade; beſides a few fiſhermen, and forty or fifty coaſting veſſels.

One branch of the Houſatonick* riſes in Laneſborough, the other in Windſor, both in Berkſhire county, in Maſſachuſetts: it paſſes through a number of pleaſant towns, and empties into the ſound between Stratford and Milford: it is navigable twelve miles to Derby. A bar of ſhells, at its mouth, obſtructs its navigation for large veſſels. In this river, between Saliſbury and Canaan, is a cataract, where the water of the whole river, which is 150 yards wide, falls about ſixty feet perpendicular, in a perfect white ſheet, exhibiting a ſcene exceedingly grand and beautiful.

Naugatuk is a ſmall river which riſes in Torrington, and empties into the Houſatonick at Derby.

The Thames empties into Long Iſland ſound at New London: it is navigable fourteen miles to Norwich Landing: here it loſes its name, and branches into Shentucket on the eaſt, and Norwich or Little river on the weſt. The city of Norwich ſtands on the tongue of land between theſe rivers. Little river, about a mile from its mouth, has a remarkable and very romantic cataract. A rock, ten or twelve feet in perpendicular height, extends quite acroſs the channel of the river: over this the whole river pitches, in one entire ſheet, upon a bed of rocks below. Here the river is compreſſed into a very narrow channel between two craggy cliffs, one of which towers to a conſiderable height: the channel deſcends gradually, is very crooked, and covered with pointed rocks. Upon theſe the water ſwiftly tumbles, foaming with the moſt violent agitation, fifteen or twenty rods, into a broad baſon which ſpreads before it. At the bottom of the perpendicular falls the rocks are curiouſly excavated by the conſtant pouring of the water: ſome of the cavities, which are all of a circular form, are five or ſix feet deep. The ſmoothneſs of the water above its deſcent—the regularity and beauty of the perpendicular fall—the tremendous roughneſs of the other, and the craggy, towering cliff which impends the whole, preſent to the view of the ſpectator a ſcene indeſcribably delightful and majeſtic. On this river are ſome of the fineſt mill ſeats in New England; and thoſe immediately below the falls, occupied by Lathrop's mills, are, perhaps, not exceeded by any in the world. Acroſs the mouth of this river is a broad, commodious bridge, in the form of a wharf, built at a great expence.

Shetucket river, the other branch of the Thames, four miles from its mouth, receives Quinnabogue, which has its ſource in Brimfield in Maſſachuſetts; thence paſſing through Sturbridge and Dudley in Maſſachuſetts, it croſſes into Connecticut, and divide

* An Indian name, ſignifying *Over the Mountain.*

divides Pomfret from Killingly, Canterbury from Plainfield, and Liſbon from Preſton, and then mingles with the Shetucket. In paſſing through this hilly country, it tumbles over many falls, two of which, one in Thompſon, the other in Brooklyn, are thirty feet each, and affords a vaſt number of fine mill ſeats. In its courſe it receives a great number of tributary ſtreams, the principal of which are Muddy Brook, and Five Mile river.

Shetucket river is formed by the junction of Willamantick and Mount Hope rivers, which unite between Windham and Lebanon. In Liſbon it receives Little river; and at a little diſtance farther the Quinnabogue, and empties as above.

Theſe rivers are fed by numberleſs brooks from every part of the country. At the mouth of Shetucket, is a bridge of timber 124 feet in length, ſupported at each end by pillars, and held up in the middle by braces on the top, in the nature of an arch.

Paukatuck river is an inconſiderable ſtream which heads in Stonington, and empties into Stonington harbour. It forms part of the dividing line between Connecticut and Rhode Iſland.

Eaſt, or North Haven river, riſes in Southington, not far from a bend in Farmington river, and paſſing through Wallingford and North Haven, falls into New Haven harbour. It has been meditated to connect the ſource of this river with Farmington river.

Eaſt and Weſt rivers are inconſiderable ſtreams, bounding the city of New Haven on the eaſt and weſt.

Weſt of the Houſatonick, are a number of ſmall rivers which fall into the ſound. Among theſe is Byram river, noticeable only as forming a part of the boundary between New York and Connecticut. But neither this, nor any of the others, are conſiderable enough to merit particular deſcriptions.

HARBOURS.] The two principal harbours are at New London and New Haven. The former opens to the ſouth. From the light-houſe, which ſtands at the mouth of the harbour, to the town, is about three miles; the breadth is three quarters of a mile, and in ſome places more. The harbour has from five to ſix fathom water—a clear bottom—tough, ooze, and as far as one mile above the town is entirely ſecure, and commodious for large ſhips.

New Haven harbour is greatly inferior to that of New London. It is a bay which ſets up northerly from the ſound, about four miles. Its entrance is about half a mile wide. It has very good anchorage, and two and an half fathom at low water, and three fathom and four feet at common tides.

About a mile from the town, on the channel, a pier is erected, at which veſſels of ſuch ſize as cannot come up to the wharf, lade and unlade. A ſum of money has lately been raiſed by lottery for the purpoſe of extending the long wharf to this pier, and the work is partly accompliſhed. When completed, this wharf will be the longeſt in the United States, and will be a vaſt benefit to the town.

The whole of the ſea coaſt is indented with harbours, many of which are ſafe and commodious, but are not ſufficiently uſed to merit a deſcription.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCTIONS.] Connecticut, though ſubject to the extremes of heat and cold in their ſeaſons, and to frequent ſudden changes, is very healthful. The north-weſt winds, in the winter ſeaſon, are often extremely ſevere and piercing, occaſioned by the great body of ſnow which lies concealed from the diſſolving influence of the ſun, in the immenſe foreſts north and north-weſt. The clear and ſerene temperature of the ſky, however, makes amends for the ſeverity of the weather, and is favourable to health and longevity. Connecticut is generally broken land, made

up

up of mountains, hills, and vallies; and is exceedingly well watered. Some ſmall parts of it are thin and barren. It lies in the fifth and ſixth northern climates, and has a ſtrong fertile ſoil. Its principal productions are Indian corn, rye, wheat in many parts of the State, oats, and barley, which are heavy and good, and of late, buck wheat—flax in large quantities—ſome hemp, potatoes of ſeveral kinds, pumpkins, turnips, peas, beans, &c. &c. Fruits of all kinds, which are common to the climate. The ſoil is very well calculated for paſture and mowing, which enables the farmers to feed large numbers of neat cattle and horſes. Actual calculation has evinced, that any given quantity of the beſt mowing land in Connecticut produces about twice as much clear profit, as the ſame quantity of the beſt wheat land in the State of New York. Many farmers, in the eaſtern part of the State, have lately found their advantage in raiſing mules, which are carried from the ports of Norwich and New London to the Weſt India iſlands, and yield a handſome profit. The beef, pork, butter, and cheeſe of Connecticut, are equal to any in the world.

TRADE.] The trade of Connecticut is principally with the Weſt India iſlands, and is carried on in veſſels from ſixty to an hundred and forty tons. The exports conſiſt of horſes, mules, oxen, oak ſtaves, hoops, pine boards, oak plank, beans, Indian corn, fiſh, beef, pork, &c. Horſes, live cattle and lumber, are permitted in the Dutch, Daniſh, and French ports.

Connecticut has a large number of coaſting veſſels employed in carrying the produce of the State to other States. To Rhode Iſland, Maſſachuſetts, and New Hampſhire, they carry pork, wheat, corn, and rye; to North and South Carolinas and Georgia, butter, cheeſe, ſalted beef, cyder, apples, potatoes, hay, &c. and receive in return, rice, indigo, and money. But as New York is nearer, and the ſtate of the markets always well known, much of the produce of Connecticut, eſpecially of the weſtern parts, is carried there; particularly pot and pearl aſh, flax ſeed, beef, pork, cheeſe, and butter, in large quantities. Moſt of the produce of Connecticut river from the parts of Maſſachuſetts, New Hampſhire, and Vermont, as well as of Connecticut, which are adjacent, goes to the ſame market. Conſiderable quantities of the produce of the eaſtern parts of the State are marketed at Boſton and Providence.

The value of the whole exported produce and commodities from this State, before the year 1774, was then eſtimated at about 200,000l. lawful money, annually. In the year ending September 30th, 1791, the amount of foreign exports from this State was 710,340 dollars—beſides articles carried to different parts of the United States to a great amount. This State owns and employs in the foreign and coaſting trade, 32,867 tons of ſhipping.

MANUFACTURES.] The farmers in Connecticut and their families are moſtly clothed in plain, decent, homeſpun cloth. The linens and woollens are manufactured in the family way; and although they are generally of a coarſer kind they are of a ſtronger texture, and much more durable than thoſe imported from France and Great Britain. Many of their cloths are fine and handſome.

A woollen manufactory has been eſtabliſhed at Hartford. The legiſlature of the State have encouraged it, and it bids fair to grow into importance. Mr. Chittendon, of New Haven, has invented a uſeful machine for bending and cutting card teeth. This machine is put in motion by a manderil twelve inches in length, and one inch in diameter. Connected with the manderil are ſix parts of the machine, independent of each other; the firſt introduces a certain length of wire into the chops of the *corone*; the ſecond, ſhuts the chops and holds faſt the wire in the middle until it is finiſhed; the third, cuts off the wire; the fourth, doubles the tooth in proper form; the fifth,

makes the laſt bend; and the ſixth, delivers the finiſhed tooth from the machine. The manderil is moved by a band wheel, five feet in diameter, turned by a crank. One revolution of the manderil makes one tooth; ten are made in a ſecond, 36,000 in an hour. With one machine like this, teeth enough might be made to fill cards ſufficient for all the manufacturers in New England. In New Haven are linen and button manufactories, which flouriſh. In Hartford are glaſs works, a ſnuff and powder mill, and iron works, and a ſlitting mill. Iron works are eſtabliſhed alſo at Saliſbury, Norwich, and other parts of the State. At Stafford is a furnace at which are made large quantities of hollow ware, and other ironmougery, ſufficient to ſupply the whole State. Paper is manufactured at Norwich, Hartford, New Haven, and in Litchfield county. Nails, of every ſize, are made in almoſt every town and village in Connecticut; ſo that conſiderable quantities can be exported to the neighbouring States, and at a better rate than they can be had from Europe. Ironmongery, hats, candles, leather, ſhoes, and boots, are manufactured in this State. Oil mills, of a new and very ingenious conſtruction, have been erected in ſeveral parts of the State. A duck manufactory has been eſtabliſhed at Stratford, and it is ſaid is doing well.

Population and Character.] Connecticut is the moſt populous, in proportion to its extent, of any of the Thirteen States. It is laid out in ſmall farms from fifty to three or four hundred acres each, which are held by the farmers in fee ſimple; and are generally cultivated as well as the nature of the ſoil will admit. The State is chequered with innumerable roads or highways croſſing each other in every direction. A traveller in any of theſe roads, even in the moſt unſettled parts of the State, will ſeldom paſs more than two or three miles without finding a houſe or cottage, and a farm under ſuch improvements, as to afford the neceſſaries for the ſupport of a family. The whole State reſembles a well-cultivated garden, which, with that degree of induſtry that is neceſſary to happineſs, produces the neceſſaries and conveniencies of life in great plenty.

In 1756 the number of inhabitants in Connecticut was 130,611. In 1774, there were 197,856 ſouls. In eighteen years the increaſe was 67,245. From 1774 to 1782, the increaſe was but 11,294 perſons. This comparatively ſmall increaſe of inhabitants may be ſatisfactorily accounted for from the deſtruction of the war, and the numerous emigrations to Vermont, the weſtern parts of New Hampſhire, New York, and the other States.

The inhabitants are almoſt entirely of Engliſh deſcent. There are no Dutch, French, or Germans, and very few Scotch or Iriſh people in any part of the State.

In addition to what has been already ſaid under New England it may be obſerved, that the people of Connecticut are remarkably fond of having all their diſputes, even thoſe of the moſt trivial kind, ſettled *according to law*. The prevalence of this litigious ſpirit affords employment and ſupport for a numerous body of lawyers. The number of actions entered annually upon the ſeveral dockets in the State juſtifies the above obſervations. That party ſpirit, however, which is the bane of political happineſs, has not raged with ſuch violence in this State as in Maſſachuſetts and Rhode Iſland. Public proceedings have been conducted generally, and eſpecially of late, with much calmneſs and candour. The people are well informed in regard to their rights, and judicious in the methods they adopt to ſecure them. The State enjoys a great ſhare of political tranquillity.

The clergy, who are numerous, and, as a body, very reſpectable, have hitherto preſerved a kind of ariſtocratical balance in the very democratical government of the State; which has happily operated as a check upon the overbearing ſpirit of republicaniſm.

caniſm. It has been lamented that the unhappy religious diſputes which have too much prevailed among ſome of the clergy, and an inattention to the qualifications of thoſe who have been admitted to the ſacred office, have, heretofore, conſiderably diminiſhed their influence. It is a pleaſing circumſtance that the rage for theological diſputation is abating, and greater ſtrictneſs is obſerved in the admiſſion of candidates to the miniſtry. Their influence is on the increaſe, and it is no doubt to be attributed, in part, to their increaſing influence, that an evident reformation in the manners of the people of this State has taken place ſince the peace.

RELIGION.] Such as is happily adapted to a republican government. As to the mode of exerciſing church government and diſcipline, it might not improperly be called a republican religion. Each church has a ſeparate juriſdiction, and claims authority to chooſe their own miniſter, to exerciſe judgement and to enjoy goſpel ordinances within itſelf. The churches, however, are not independent of each other; they are aſſociated for mutual benefit and convenience. The aſſociations have power to licenſe candidates for the miniſtry, to conſult for the general welfare, and to recommend meaſures to be adopted by the churches, but have no authority to enforce them. When diſputes ariſe in churches, councils are called by the parties to ſettle them; but their power is only adviſory. There are eleven aſſociations in the State, and they meet twice in a year. Theſe are all combined in one general aſſociation, who meet annually.

All religions that are conſiſtent with the peace of ſociety, are tolerated in Connecticut; and a ſpirit of liberality and catholiciſm is increaſing. There are very few religious ſects in this State. The bulk of the people are Congregationaliſts. Beſides theſe there are Epiſcopalians and Baptiſts; and formerly there was a ſociety of Sandimanians at New Haven; but they are now reduced to a very ſmall number. The Epiſcopalian churches are reſpectable, and are under the ſuperintendence of a biſhop.

DAMAGES SUSTAINED IN THE LATE WAR.] After the eſtabliſhment of the peace in 1783, a number of gentlemen were appointed by the General Aſſembly to eſtimate the damages done by the Britiſh troops in the ſeveral towns which they ravaged. The following is the reſult of their inquiries:

	Amount of loſſes.
New London (burnt by Benedict Arnold, September 6, 1781,)	£. 145,788 15 6
Groton, ditto ditto	23,217 6 0
Scattering towns, ditto ditto	9,806 9 2
	178,812 10 8
Norwalk, (burnt by the Britiſh, 1779)	34,867 9 2
——— Confiſcated property and other loſſes	2,077 0 0
	36,944 9 2
Greenwich	6,365 11 8
——— Loſſes of men not on oath	369 17 7
	6,735 9 3
Fairfield, (burnt 1779)	40,809 2 10

	Amount of losses.
New Haven, ravaged by Governor Tryon, July 1779	£. 24,893 7 6
East Haven, ditto ditto	4,882 16 4
West Haven, ditto ditto	474 0 3
Other losses not before computed	586 0 1
	30,836 4 2

Amount of the losses in the whole State, in money, valued as in 1774, £. 294,235 16 1

The foregoing estimate includes merchandize and public buildings. Exclusive of these, the losses are estimated at £.167,000. To compensate the sufferers, the General Court, in May 1792, granted them 500,000 acres of the western part of the reserved lands of Connecticut, which lie west of Pennsylvania.

CHIEF TOWNS.] There are a great number of very pleasant towns, both maritime and inland, in Connecticut. It contains five cities, incorporated with extensive jurisdiction in civil causes. Two of these, Hartford and Newhaven, are capitals of the State. The General Assembly is holden at the former in May, and at the latter in October, annually.

HARTFORD (city) is situated at the head of navigation on the west side of Connecticut river, about fifty miles from its entrance into the sound. Its buildings are a state house, two churches for Congregationalists, a distillery, besides upwards of 300 dwelling houses, a number of which are handsomely built with brick.

The town is divided by a small river, with high romantic banks. Over this river is a bridge connecting the two divisions of the town. Hartford is advantageously situated for trade, has a very fine back country, enters largely into the manufacturing business, and is a rich, flourishing, commercial town. A bank has lately been established in this city.

NEW HAVEN (city) lies round the head of a bay, which makes up about four miles north from the sound. It covers part of a large plain, which is circumscribed on three sides by high hills or mountains. Two small rivers bound the city east and west. The town was originally laid out in squares of sixty rods. Many of the squares have been divided by cross streets. Four streets run north-west and south-east, these are crossed by others at right angles. Near the center of the city is the public square; on and around which are the public buildings, which are, a state house, college, and chapel, three churches for Congregationalists and one for Episcopalians. These are all handsome and commodious buildings. The college, chapel, state house, and one of the churches, are of brick. The public square is encircled with rows of trees, which render it both convenient and delightful. Its beauty, however, is greatly diminished by the burial ground, and several of the public buildings, which occupy a considerable part of it.

Many of the streets are ornamented with two rows of trees, one on each side, which gives the city a rural appearance. The prospect from the steeples is greatly variegated and extremely beautiful. There are about 500 dwelling houses in the city, principally of wood, and well built, and some of them elegant. The streets are sandy, but neat and cleanly. Within the limits of the city are 4000 souls. About one in seventy die annually; this proves the healthfulness of its climate. Indeed, as to pleasantness of situation and salubrity of air, New Haven is not exceeded by any city in America,

America. It carries on a conſiderable trade with New York and the Weſt India Iſlands, and ſeveral kinds of manufactures, and is flouriſhing.

New London (city) ſtands on the weſt ſide of the river Thames, near its entrance into the ſound, in latitude 41° 25′. It has two places for public worſhip, one for Epiſcopalians, and one for Congregationaliſts; about 300 dwelling-houſes, and 4600 inhabitants. Its harbour is the beſt in Connecticut. It is defended by Fort Trumbull and Fort Griſwold, the one in New London, the other in Groton. A conſiderable part of the town was burnt by Benedict Arnold in 1781. It has ſince been rebuilt.

Norwich (city) ſtands at the head of Thames river, 14 miles north from New London. It is a commercial city, has a rich and extenſive back country, and avails itſelf of its natural advantages at the head of navigation. Its ſituation upon a river, which affords a great number of convenient ſeats for mills and water-machines of all kinds, render it very eligible in a manufactural view.

The inhabitants are not neglectful of the advantages which nature has ſo liberally given them. They manufacture paper of all kinds, ſtockings, clocks and watches, chaiſes, buttons, ſtone and earthen-ware, wire, oil, chocolate, bells, anchors, and all kinds of forge work. The city contains about 450 dwelling-houſes, a court-houſe, and two churches for Congregationaliſts, and one for Epiſcopalians, and about 3000 inhabitants. The city is in three detached, compact diviſions; viz. Chelſea, at the landing, the town, and Bean Hill; in the latter diviſion is an academy; and in the town is a ſchool, ſupported by a donation from Dr. Daniel Lathrop, deceaſed. The courts of law are held alternately at New London and Norwich.

Middleton (city) is pleaſantly ſituated on the weſtern bank of Connecticut river, fifteen miles ſouth of Hartford. It is the principal town in Middleſex county—has about 300 houſes—a court-houſe—one church for Congregationaliſts—one for Epiſcopalians—a naval office—and carries on a large and increaſing trade.

Four miles ſouth of Hartford is Wethersfield, a very pleaſant town, of between two and three hundred houſes, ſituated on a fine ſoil, with an elegant brick church for Congregationaliſts. A fair is held here twice a year. This town is noted for raiſing onions.

Windſor, Farmington, Litchfield, Milford, Stratford, Fairfield, Guilford, Stamford, Windham, Suffield, and Enfield, are all conſiderable and very pleaſant towns.

Curiosities.] Two miles weſt of New Haven is a mountain, on the top of which is a cave, remarkable for having been the reſidence of Generals Whaley and Goffe, two of the judges of Charles I. who was beheaded. They arrived at Boſton, July 1660, and came to New Haven the following year, and retired, and concealed themſelves behind Weſt Mountain, three miles from New Haven. They ſoon after removed to Milford, where they lived concealed until October, 1664, when they returned to New Haven, and immediately proceeded to Hadley, where they remained concealed for about ten years, in which time Whaley died, and Goffe ſoon after fled. In 1665, John Dixwell, Eſq. another of the king's judges, viſited them while at Hadley, and afterwards proceeded to New Haven, where he lived many years, and was known by the name of John Davis. Here he died, and was buried in the public burying-place, where his grave-ſtone is ſtanding to this day, with this inſcription:—"J. D. Eſq. deceaſed, March 18th, in the 82d year of his age, 1688."

In the town of Pomfret is a cave, rendered remarkable by the humourous adventure of General Putnam.

Colleges,

COLLEGES, ACADEMIES, AND SCHOOLS.] In no part of the world is the education of all ranks of people more attended to than in Connecticut. Almoſt every town in the State is divided into diſtricts, and each diſtrict has a public ſchool kept in it a greater or leſs part of every year. Somewhat more than one third of the monies ariſing from a tax on the polls and rateable eſtate of the inhabitants is appropriated to the ſupport of ſchools in the ſeveral towns, for the education of children and youth. The law directs that a grammar-ſchool ſhall be kept in every county town throughout the State.

There is a grammar-ſchool at Hartford, and another at New Haven, ſupported by a donation of Governor Hopkins. This venerable and benevolent gentleman, in his laſt will, dated 1657, left in the hands of Theophilus Eaton, Eſq. and three others, a legacy of 1324l. "as an encouragement, in theſe foreign plantations, of breeding up hopeful youths, both at the grammar-ſchool and college." In 1664, this legacy was equally divided between New Haven and Hartford; and grammar-ſchools were erected, which have been ſupported ever ſince.

Academies have been eſtabliſhed at Greenfield, Plainfield, Norwich, Windham, and Pomfret, ſome of which are flouriſhing.

YALE COLLEGE was founded in 1700, and remained at Killingworth until 1707—then at Saybrook until 1716, when it was removed and fixed at New Haven. Among its principal benefactors was Governor Yale, in honour of whom, in 1718, it was named YALE COLLEGE. Its firſt building was erected in 1717, being 170 feet in length, and 22 in breadth, built of wood. This was taken down in 1782. The preſent college edifice, which is of brick, was built in 1750, under the direction of the Rev. Preſident Clap, and is 100 feet long, and 40 feet wide, three ſtories high, and contains thirty-two chambers, and ſixty-four ſtudies, convenient for the reception of a hundred ſtudents. The college chapel, which is alſo of brick, was built in 1761, being 50 feet by 40, with a ſteeple 125 feet high. In this building is the public library, conſiſting of about 2500 volumes; and the philoſophical apparatus, which by a late handſome addition is now as complete as moſt others in the United States, and contains the machines neceſſary for exhibiting experiments in the whole courſe of experimental philoſophy and aſtronomy.

The college muſeum, to which additions are conſtantly making, contains many natural curioſities.

This literary inſtitution was incorporated by the general aſſembly of Connecticut. The firſt charter of incorporation was granted to eleven miniſters, under the denomination of truſtees, 1701. The powers of the truſtees were enlarged by the additional charter, 1723. And by that of 1745, the truſtees were incorporated by the name of "The Preſident and Fellows of Yale College, New Haven." By an act of the General Aſſembly "for enlarging the powers and increaſing the funds of Yale College," paſſed in May 1792, and accepted by the corporation, the governor, lieutenant-governor, and the ſix ſenior aſſiſtants in the council of the State, for the time being, are ever hereafter, by virtue of their offices, to be truſtees and fellows of the college, in addition to the former corporation. The corporation are empowered to hold eſtates, continue their ſucceſſion, make academic laws, elect and conſtitute all officers of inſtruction and government uſual in univerſities, and confer all learned degrees. The immediate executive government is in the hands of the preſident and tutors. The preſent officers and inſtructors of the college are, a preſident, who is alſo profeſſor of eccleſiaſtical hiſtory, a profeſſor of divinity, and three tutors. The number of ſtudents on an average is about 130, divided into four claſſes. It is worthy of remark, that

as

as many as five-ſixths of thoſe who have received their education at this univerſity, were natives of Connecticut.

The funds of this college received a very liberal addition by a grant of the General Aſſembly in the act of 1792, before mentioned; which will enable the corporation to erect a new building for the accommodation of the ſtudents, to ſupport ſeveral new profeſſorſhips, and to make a handſome addition to the library.

The courſe of education, in this univerſity, comprehends the whole circle of literature. The three learned languages are taught, together with ſo much of the ſciences as can be communicated in four years.

In May and September, annually, the ſeveral claſſes are critically examined in all their claſſical ſtudies. As incentives to improvement in compoſition and oratory, quarterly exerciſes are appointed by the preſident and tutors, to be exhibited by the reſpective claſſes in rotation. A public commencement is held annually on the ſecond Wedneſday in September, which calls together a more numerous and brilliant aſſembly than are convened by any other anniverſary in the State.

About 2200 have received the honours of this univerſity, of whom nearly 760 have been ordained to the work of the goſpel miniſtry.*

MINERALS AND FOSSILS.] On the bank of Connecticut river, two miles from Middleton, is a lead mine, which was wrought during the war, at the expenſe of the State, and was productive. It is too expenſive to work in time of peace. Copper mines have been diſcovered and opened in ſeveral parts of the State, but have proved unprofitable, and are much neglected. Iron ore abounds in many parts of the State. Talks of various kinds, white, brown, and chocolate coloured cryſtals, zink or ſpelter, a ſemi-metal, and ſeveral other foſſils and metals have been found in Connecticut.

MODE OF LEVYING TAXES.] All freeholders in the State are required by law to give in liſts of their polls and rateable eſtate,† to perſons appointed in the reſpective towns to receive them, on or before the 20th of Auguſt annually. Theſe are valued according to law, arranged in proper order, and ſent to the General Aſſembly annually in May.

The ſum total of the liſt of the polls and rateable eſtate of the inhabitants of Connecticut, as brought into the General Aſſembly in May 1787, was as follows:

	£.	s.	d.
Sum total of the ſingle liſt - -	1,484,901	6	4¾
Aſſeſſments - - -	47,790	2	9
One quarter of the four-folds - -	1,176	9	4
Total -	£.1,533,867	18	5¾

* Acceſſus. A. D.	Preſidents.	Exitus. A. D.
1701	Abraham Pierſon, - -	1707
1719	Timothy Cutler, S. T. D. - -	1722
1726	Eliſha Williams - -	1739
1739	Thomas Clap - - -	1766
1777	Ezra Stiles, S. T. D. L. L. D.	

† In Connecticut, horſes, horned cattle, cultivated and uncultivated land, houſes, ſhipping, all ſorts of riding-carriages, clocks and watches, ſilver plate and money at intereſt, are rateable eſtate. All males between ſixteen and ſeventy years of age, unleſs exempted by law, are ſubjects of taxation.

On

On this ſum taxes are levied ſo much on the pound, according to the ſum propoſed to be raiſed. A tax of 2d. on a pound would raiſe 12,782l. 4s.

The ordinary annual expences of the government before the war amounted to near 4000l. ſterling, excluſive of that which was appropriated to the ſupport of ſchools. The expenſes have ſince increaſed.

MINERAL SPRINGS.] At Stafford is a medicinal ſpring, which is ſaid to be a ſovereign remedy for ſcorbutic, cutaneous, and other diſorders.

CONSTITUTION AND COURTS OF JUSTICE.] The conſtitution of Connecticut is founded on their charter, which was granted by Charles II. in 1662, and on a law of the State. Contented with this form of government, the people have not been diſpoſed to run the hazard of framing a new conſtitution ſince the declaration of independence.

Agreeable to this charter, the ſupreme legiſlative authority of the State is veſted in a governor, lieutenant-governor, twelve aſſiſtants or counſellors, and the repreſentatives of the people, ſtiled the *General Aſſembly*. The governor, lieutenant-governor, and aſſiſtants, are annually choſen by the freemen, in the month of May. The repreſentatives (their number not to exceed two from each town) are choſen by the freemen twice a year, to attend the two annual ſeſſions, on the ſecond Thurſdays in May and October. This aſſembly has power to erect judicatories for the trial of cauſes, civil and criminal, and to ordain and eſtabliſh laws for ſettling the forms and ceremonies of government. By theſe laws the General Aſſembly is divided into two branches, called the upper and lower houſes. The upper houſe is compoſed of the governor, lieutenant-governor, and aſſiſtants. The lower houſe, of the repreſentatives of the people. No law can paſs without the concurrence of both houſes. The judges of the ſuperior court hold their offices during the pleaſure of the General Aſſembly. The judges of the county courts, and juſtices, are annually appointed. Sheriffs are appointed by the governor and council, without limitation of time. The governor is captain-general of the militia, the lieutenant-governor lieutenant-general. All other military officers are appointed by the aſſembly, and commiſſioned by the governor.

The mode of electing the governor, lieutenant-governor, aſſiſtants, treaſurer, and ſecretary, is as follows: the freemen in the ſeveral towns meet on the Monday next after the firſt Tueſday in April annually, and give in their votes for the perſons they chooſe for the ſaid offices reſpectively, with their names written on a piece of paper, which are received and ſealed up by a conſtable in open meeting, the votes for each office by themſelves, with the name of the town and office written on the outſide. Theſe votes, thus ſealed, are ſent to the General Aſſembly in May, and there counted by a committee from both houſes. All freemen are eligible to any office in government. In chooſing aſſiſtants, twenty perſons are nominated, by the vote of each freeman, at the freeman's meeting for chooſing repreſentatives in September annually. Theſe votes are ſealed up, and ſent to the General Aſſembly in October, and are there counted by a committee of both houſes, and the twenty perſons who have the moſt votes ſtand in nomination; out of which number, the twelve who have the greateſt number of votes, given by the freemen at their meeting in April, are in May declared aſſiſtants in the manner above mentioned. The qualifications of freemen are, quiet and peaceable behaviour, a civil converſation, and freehold eſtate to the value of forty ſhillings per annum, or forty pounds perſonal eſtate in the liſt, certified by the ſelectmen of the town; it is neceſſary, alſo, that they take the oath of fidelity to the State. Their names are inrolled in the town-clerk's office, and they continue free-

men for life, unleſs disfranchiſed by ſentence of the ſuperior court, on conviction of miſdemeanor.

The courts are as follow:—The juſtices of the peace, of whom a number are annually appointed in each town by the General Aſſembly, have authority to hear and determine civil actions, where the demand does not exceed four pounds. If the demand exceeds forty ſhillings, an appeal to the county is allowed. They have cogniſance of ſmall offences, and may puniſh by fine, not exceeding forty ſhillings, or whipping, not exceeding ten ſtripes, or ſitting in the ſtocks. There are eight county-courts in the State, held in the ſeveral counties by one judge and four juſtices of the quorum, who have juriſdiction of all criminal caſes ariſing within their reſpective counties, where the puniſhment does not extend to life, limb, or baniſhment. They have original juriſdiction of all civil actions which exceed the juriſdiction of a juſtice. Either party may appeal to the ſuperior court, if the demand exceeds 20l. except on bonds or notes vouched by two witneſſes.

There are ſeveral courts of probate in each county, conſiſting of one judge. The peculiar province of this court is, the probate of wills, granting adminiſtration on inteſtate eſtates, ordering diſtribution of them, and appointing guardians for minors, &c. An appeal lies from any decree of this court to the ſuperior court.

The ſuperior court conſiſts of five judges. It has authority in all criminal caſes extending to life, limb, or baniſhment, and other high crimes and miſdemeanors, to grant divorces, and to hear and determine all civil actions brought by appeal from the county courts, or the court of probate, and to correct the errors of all inferior courts. This is a circuit-court, and has two ſtated ſeſſions in each county annually. The ſuperior and county courts try matters of fact by jury, or without, if the parties will agree.

There is a ſupreme court of errors, conſiſting of the lieutenant-governor, and the twelve aſſiſtants. Their ſole buſineſs is to determine writs of error, brought on judgements of the ſuperior court, where the error complained of appears on the record. They have two ſtated ſeſſions annually, viz. on the Tueſdays of the weeks preceding the ſtated ſeſſions of the General Aſſembly.

The county court is a court of chancery, empowered to hear and determine caſes in equity, where the matter in demand does not exceed one hundred pounds. The ſuperior court has cogniſance of all caſes, where the demand exceeds that ſum. Error may be brought from the county to the ſuperior court, and from the ſuperior court to the ſupreme court of errors, on judgement in caſes of equity as well as of law.

The General Aſſembly only have power to grant pardons and reprieves—to grant commiſſions of bankruptcy—or protect the perſons and eſtates of unfortunate debtors.

The common law of England, ſo far as it is applicable to this country, is conſidered as the common law of this State. The reports of adjudication in the courts of king's bench, common pleas, and chancery, are read in the courts of this State as authorities; yet the judges do not conſider them as concluſively binding, unleſs founded on ſolid reaſons which will apply in this State, or ſanctioned by concurrent adjudications of their own courts.

The feudal ſyſtem of deſcents was never adopted in this State. All the real eſtate of inteſtates is divided equally among the children, males and females, except that the eldeſt ſon has a double portion. And all eſtates given in tail, muſt be given to ſome perſon then in being, or to their immediate iſſue, and ſhall become fee ſimple eſtates

to the iſſue of the firſt donee in tail. The widow of an inteſtate is entitled to a third part of the perſonal eſtate for ever, and to her dower, or third part of the houſes and lands belonging to the inteſtate at the time of his death, during her life.

Practice of Law.] The practice of law in this State has more ſimplicity, but leſs preciſion, than in England. Aſſiſtants and judges are empowered to iſſue writs through the State, and juſtices, through their reſpective counties. In theſe writs the ſubſtance of the complaints or the declarations muſt be contained, and if neither of the parties ſhew good reaſon for delay, the cauſes are heard and determined the ſame term to which the writs are returnable. Few of the fictions of law ſo common in the Engliſh practice, are known in this State. The plaintiff always has his election to attach or ſummon the defendant. Attornies are admitted and qualified by the county courts. Previous to their admiſſion to the bar, they muſt ſtudy two years with a practiſing attorney in the State, if they have had a college education, and three years if they have not; their morals muſt be good, and their characters unblemiſhed, and they muſt ſuſtain an examination by the attornies of the court of the county where they are admitted, and be by them recommended to the court. When admitted to the county court, they can practiſe, without other qualifications, in any court in the State. There are upon an average, about fifteen attornies to each county, one hundred and twenty in the State; a very great proportion for the real exigencies of the people. Yet from the litigious ſpirit of the citizens, the moſt of them find employment and ſupport. There is no attorney general, but there is one attorney to the State in each county.

New Inventions.] Early in the war, Mr. David Buſhnel, of Saybrook, invented a machine for *ſubmarine* navigation, altogether different from any thing hitherto deviſed by the art of man. This machine was ſo conſtructed as that it could be rowed horizontally, at any given depth, under water, and could be raiſed or depreſſed at pleaſure. To this machine, called the *American Turtle*, was attached a magazine of powder, which was intended to be faſtened under the bottom of a ſhip, with a driving ſcrew, in ſuch a way as that the ſame ſtroke which diſengaged it from the machine ſhould put the internal clock work in motion. This being done, the ordinary operation of a gun lock, at the diſtance of half an hour, or any determinate time, would cauſe the powder to explode and leave the effects to the common laws of nature. The ſimplicity, yet combination diſcovered in the mechaniſm of this wonderful machine, have been acknowledged by thoſe ſkilled in phyſics, and particularly hydraulics, to be not leſs ingenious than novel. Mr. Buſhnel invented ſeveral other curious machines for the annoyance of the Britiſh ſhipping, but from accidents, not militating againſt the philoſophical principles, on which their ſucceſs depended, they but partially ſucceeded. He deſtroyed a veſſel in the charge of Commodore Symmonds. One of his kegs alſo demoliſhed a veſſel near the Long Iſland ſhore. About Chriſtmas 1777, he committed to the Delaware river a number of kegs, deſtined to fall among the Britiſh fleet at Philadelphia; but this ſquadron of kegs, having been ſeparated and retarded by the ice, demoliſhed but a ſingle boat. This cataſtrophe, however, produced an alarm, unprecedented in its nature and degree; which has been ſo happily deſcribed by the late Hon. Francis Hopkinſon, in a ſong, ſtiled "The Battle of the Kegs,"* that the event it celebrates will not be forgotten, ſo long as mankind ſhall continue to be delighted with works of humour and taſte.

Mr. Hanks, of Litchfield, has invented a method of winding up clocks by means of air or wind only, which is ingenious, and practiſed upon in New York and other places.

* See Hopkinſon's Works, lately publiſhed in Philadelphia.

Mr.

Mr. Culver, of Norwich, has conſtructed a Dock Drudge, which is a boat for clearing docks and removing bars in rivers; a very ingenious and uſeful machine. Its good effects have already been experienced in the navigation of the river Thames, the channel of which has been conſiderably deepened. This machine will, no doubt, be productive of very great advantages to navigation throughout the United States.

The Rev. Joſeph Badger, while a member of Yale College in 1785, conſtructed an ingenious *planetarium*, (without ever having ſeen one of the kind) which is depoſited in the library of that univerſity.

HISTORY.] As there is no particular hiſtory of this State, to which the reader can be referred, the author will, no doubt, be indulged in ſo far deviating from his general plan, as to relate the following particulars, collected with great pains, relative to the ſettlement and progreſs of things in this State.

The preſent territory of Connecticut, at the time of the firſt arrival of the Engliſh, was poſſeſſed by the Pequot, the Mohegan, Podunk, and many other ſmaller tribes of Indians.

The Pequots were numerous and warlike. Their country extended along the ſea coaſt from Paukatuck, to Connecticut river. About the year 1630, this powerful tribe extended their conqueſts over a conſiderable part of Connecticut, over all Long Iſland and part of Narraganſet. SASSACUS, who was the grand monarch of the whole country, was king of this nation. The ſeat of his dominion was at New London; the ancient Indian name of which was Pequot.

The Mohegans were a numerous tribe, and their territory extenſive. Their ancient claim comprehended moſt of New London county, almoſt the whole of the county of Windham, and a part of the counties of Tolland and Hartford. UNCUS, diſtinguiſhed for his friendſhip to the Engliſh, was the Sachem of this tribe.

The Podunks inhabited Eaſt Hartford, and the circumjacent country. The firſt ſachem of this tribe, of whom the Engliſh had any knowledge, was Tatanimoo. He was able to bring into the field more than 200 fighting men.

The firſt grant of Connecticut was made, by the Plymouth council, to the Earl of Warwick, in 1630, and confirmed by his Majeſty in council the ſame year. This grant comprehended "all that part of New England which lies weſt from Narraganſet river, 120 miles on the ſea coaſt, from thence, in latitude and breadth aforeſaid, to the South Sea." The year following, the Earl aſſigned this grant to Lord Say and Seal, Lord Brook, and nine others.

No Engliſh ſettlements were attempted in Connecticut until the year 1633, when a number of Indian traders, having purchaſed of Zequaſſon and Natawanut, two principal ſachems, a tract of land at the mouth of Little river in Windſor, built a houſe and fortified it, and ever after maintained their right of ſoil upon the river.

The ſame year, a little before the arrival of the Engliſh, a company of Dutch traders came to Hartford, and built a houſe which they called the *Hirſe of Good Hope*, and erected a ſmall fort, in which they planted two cannon. The remains of this ſettlement are ſtill viſible on the bank of Connecticut river. This was the only ſettlement of the Dutch in Connecticut in theſe ancient times. The Dutch, and after them the province of New York, for a long time claimed as far eaſt as the weſtern bank of Connecticut river. It belongs to the profeſſed hiſtorian to prove or diſprove the juſtice of this claim. Douglaſs ſays, "The partition line between New York and Connecticut, as eſtabliſhed December 1, 1664, run from the mouth of Memoroncok river, (a little

weſt from Byram river,) N. N. W. and was the *ancient eaſterly limits of New York*, until November 23, 1683, when the line was run nearly the ſame as it is now ſettled."*

In 1634, Lord Say and Seal, &c. ſent over a ſmall number of men, who built a fort at Saybrook, and held a treaty with the Pequot Indians, who in a formal manner gave to the Engliſh their right to Connecticut river and the adjacent country.

In 1635, the Plymouth council granted to the Duke of Hamilton, all lands between Narraganſet and Connecticut rivers, and back into the country as far as Maſſachuſetts ſouth line. This covered a part of the Earl of Warwick's patent, and occaſioned ſome diſputes in the colony. There were ſeveral attempts to revive the Hamilton claim, but were never proſecuted.

In October of this year, about ſixty perſons, from Newtown, Dorcheſter, and Watertown, in Maſſachuſetts, came and ſettled at Hartford, Wethersfield, and Windſor in Connecticut; and the June following the famous Mr. Hooker, and his company, came and ſettled at Hartford, and was a friend and father to the colony till his death.

The firſt court held in Connecticut was at Hartford, April 26th, 1636; and the next year was diſtinguiſhed by the war with the Pequots.

The Engliſh obtained the country eaſt of the Dutch ſettlements, by right of conqueſt. The purſuit of the Indians led to an acquaintance with the lands on the ſea coaſt, from Saybrook to Fairfield. It was reported to be a very fine country. This favourable report induced Meſſrs. Eaton and Hopkins, two very reſpectable London merchants, and Mr. Davenport, a man of diſtinguiſhed piety and abilities, with their company, who arrived this year (1637) from London, to think of this part of the country as the place of their ſettlement. Their friends in Maſſachuſetts, ſorry to part with ſo valuable a company, diſſuaded them from their purpoſe. Influenced, however, by the promiſing proſpects which the country afforded, and flattering themſelves that they ſhould be out of the juriſdiction of a general governor, with which the country was from time to time threatened, they determined to proceed. Accordingly in March 1638, with the conſent of their friends on Connecticut river, they ſettled at New Haven, and laid the foundation of a flouriſhing colony, of which Quinipiak, now New Haven, was the chief town. The firſt public worſhip in this new plantation was attended on Lord's day April 18th, 1638, under a large ſpreading oak. The Rev. Mr. Davenport preached from Matt. iii. 1. on the temptations of the wilderneſs. Both colonies, by voluntary compact, formed themſelves into diſtinct commonwealths and remained ſo until their union in 1665.

In 1639, the three towns on Connecticut river, already mentioned, finding themſelves without the limits of any juriſdiction, formed themſelves into a body politic, and agreed upon articles of civil government. Theſe articles were the foundation of Connecticut charter, which was granted in 1662. The ſubſtance of the articles, ſo far as they reſpect the holding of aſſemblies, the time and manner of electing magiſtrates and other civil officers, (except that in the old confederation no perſon was to be choſen governor more than once in two years) and the extent of legiſlative powers, was tranſferred into, and eſtabliſhed in ſaid charter.

The firſt church was gathered in New Haven this year, and conſiſted of ſeven members. Theſe were choſen by the ſettlers, after Mr. Davenport had preached from the words of Solomon, "Wiſdom hath builded her houſe, ſhe hath hewed out her ſeven pillars." Theſe men were, indeed, the pillars of the church, to whom the reſt were added as they became qualified. They were alſo the court to try all civil actions.

The

* Douglaſs Sum. Vol. II. P. 161.

The firſt ſettlers in New Haven had all things in common; all purchaſes were made in the name and for the uſe of the whole plantation, and the lands were apportioned out to each family, according to their number and original ſtock.

At their firſt election, in October 1639, Mr. Theophilus Eaton was choſen governor for the firſt year. Their elections, by agreement, were to be annual, and the word of God their only rule in conducting the affairs of government in the plantation.

In 1643, articles of confederation between the four New England colonies were unanimouſly adopted by the colonies of New Haven and Connecticut.

The general court of New Haven, this year eſtabliſhed it as a fundamental article not to be diſputed, That none be admitted as free burgeſſes but church members, and that none but ſuch ſhould vote at elections. They alſo ordained, That each town chooſe from among themſelves judges (church members) to be a court, to have cognizance of all civil actions not exceeding twenty pounds; and of criminal caſes, where the puniſhment was ſitting in the ſtocks, whipping, and fining not exceeding five pounds. There was liberty of appeal from this court to the court of magiſtrates. The court of magiſtrates conſiſted of all the magiſtrates throughout the colony, who were to meet twice a year, at New Haven, for the trial of all capital cauſes. Six made a quorum.

The general court was to conſiſt of the governor, deputy-governor, magiſtrates, and two repreſentatives from each town. The annual election of officers of government was at this time eſtabliſhed, and has ever ſince continued.

The unſettled ſtate of the colony had hitherto prevented their eſtabliſhing a code of laws. To ſupply this defect, the general court ordered, "That the judicial laws of God as they were delivered to Moſes, and as they are a fence to the moral, being neither typical nor ceremonial, nor having any reference to Canaan, ſhall be accounted of moral equity and generally bind all offenders, and be a rule to all the courts in this juriſdiction in their proceedings againſt offenders, until they be branched out into particulars hereafter."

About this time a war broke out between the Mohegan and Narraganſet Indians. A perſonal quarrel between Onkus, ſachem of Mohegan, and Sequeſſon, ſachem of Connecticut, was the foundation of the war.*

In conſideration of the ſucceſs and increaſe of the New England colonies, and that they had been of *no charge* to the nation, and in proſpect of their being in future very ſerviceable to it, the Engliſh parliament, March 10th, 1643, granted them an exemption from all cuſtoms, ſubſidies, and other duties, until further order.

In 1644, the Connecticut adventurers purchaſed of Mr. Fenwick, agent for Lord Say and Seal, and Lord Brook, their right to the colony of Connecticut, for 1600l.

The colony of Connecticut expreſſed their diſapprobation of the uſe of tobacco, in an act of their General Aſſembly at Hartford, in 1647, wherein it was ordered, "That no perſon under the age of twenty years, nor any other that hath already accuſtomed himſelf to the uſe thereof, ſhall take any tobacco, until he ſhall have brought a certificate, from under the hand of ſome who are approved for knowledge and ſkill in phyſic, that it is uſeful for him; and alſo that he hath received a licenſe from the court for the ſame. All others who had addicted themſelves to the uſe of tobacco were, by the ſame court, prohibited taking it in any company, or at their labours, or on their travels, unleſs they were ten miles at leaſt from any houſe, or more than once a day, though not in company, on pain of a fine of *ſix-pence* for each time; to be proved by one ſubſtantial evidence. The conſtable in each town to make preſentment of ſuch tranſgreſſions

* See Winthrop's Journal, P. 303, 305.

tranſgreſſions to the particular court, and upon conviction the fine to be paid without gainſaying."

Maſſachuſetts and New Haven colonies were more cruel towards the Quakers than either Connecticut or Plymouth. Of the four, Connecticut was the moſt moderate. The general court of New Haven, 1658, paſſed a ſevere law againſt the Quakers. They introduced their law, which was copied from the act of the commiſſioners of the colonies, with this preamble:

"Whereas there is a curſed ſect of heretics lately ſprung up in the world, commonly called Quakers, who take upon them that they are immediately ſent from God, and infallibly aſſiſted by the Spirit, who yet ſpeak and write blaſphemous opinions, deſpiſe government, and the order of God in church and commonwealth, ſpeaking evil of dignities, &c.

Ordered—that whoſoever ſhall bring, or cauſe to be brought, any known Quaker or Quakers, or other blaſphemous heretics, ſhall forfeit the ſum of 50l. Alſo,

If a Quaker come into this juriſdiction on civil buſineſs, the time of his ſtay ſhall be limited by the civil authority, and he ſhall not uſe any means to corrupt or ſeduce others. On his firſt arrival, he ſhall appear before a magiſtrate, and from him receive licenſe to paſs on his buſineſs; and (for the better prevention of hurt to the people) have one or more to attend upon him at their charge, &c. The penalties in caſe of diſobedience were whipping, impriſonment, labour, and a deprivation of all converſe with any perſon."

For the ſecond offence the perſon was to be branded in the hand with the letter H—to ſuffer impriſonment—and be put to labour. For the third, to be branded in the other hand, impriſoned, &c. as before. For the fourth, the offender was to have his tongue bored through with a red hot iron—impriſoned—and kept to labour, until ſent away at their own charge.

Any perſon who ſhould attempt to defend the ſentiments of the Quakers, was, for the third offence, to be ſentenced to baniſhment.

Had the pious framers of theſe laws paid a due attention to the excellent advice of that ſagacious doctor of the law, Gamaliel, they would, perhaps, have been prevented from the adoption of ſuch ſevere and unjuſtifiable meaſures. This wiſe man, when his countrymen were about to be outrageous in perſecuting the apoſtles, addreſſed them in the following words, which merit to be engraved in letters of gold; "*Refrain from theſe men, and let them alone; for if this council or this work be of men, it will come to nought: but if it be of God, ye cannot overthrow it; leſt haply ye be found to fight even againſt God.*"* This divine maxim was but little attended to in times of perſecution. Our anceſtors ſeem to have left it to poſterity to make the important diſcovery, that perſecution is the direct method to multiply its objects.

But theſe people, who have been ſo much cenſured and ridiculed, had, perhaps as many virtues as their poſterity. And it would be wiſe in the moderns, who ſtand elevated upon the ſhoulders of their anceſtors, with the book of their experience ſpread before them, to improve their virtues and veil their faults.

The colonies of Connecticut and New Haven, from their firſt ſettlement, increaſed rapidly; tracts of land were purchaſed of the Indians, and new towns ſettled from Stamford to Stonington, and far back into the country, when in 1661, Major John Maſon, as agent for the colony, bought of the natives all lands which had not before been purchaſed by particular towns, and made a public ſurrender of them to the colony, in the preſence of the General Aſſembly. Having done theſe things, the colonists petitioned

* Acts, Chap. v.

tioned King Charles II. for a charter, and their petition was granted. His Majeſty on the 23d of April, 1662, iſſued his letters patent under the great ſeal, ordaining that the colony of Connecticut ſhould, for ever hereafter, be one body corporate and politic, in fact and in name, confirming to them their ancient grant and purchaſe, and fixing their boundaries as follows, viz. "All that part of his Majeſty's dominions in New England, in America, bounded eaſt by Narraganſet river, commonly called Narraganſet bay, where the river falleth into the ſea; and on the north by the line of Maſſachuſetts plantation, and on the ſouth by the ſea, and in longitude as the line of the Maſſachuſetts colony running from eaſt to weſt, that is to ſay, from the ſaid Narraganſet bay on the eaſt, to the South ſea on the weſt part, with the iſlands thereunto belonging." This charter has ever ſince remained the baſis of the government of Connecticut.

Such was the ignorance of the Europeans, reſpecting the geography of America, that their patents extended they knew not where; many of them were of doubtful conſtruction; and very often covered each other in part, and have produced innumerable diſputes and miſchiefs in the colonies, ſome of which are not ſettled to this day. It is not my buſineſs to touch upon theſe diſputes. I have only to obſerve, that Connecticut conſtrued her charter as authoriſing them to paſs over New York, which was then in poſſeſſion of the ſubjects of a Chriſtian prince, and claimed, in latitude and breadth mentioned therein, to the South ſea. Accordingly purchaſes were made of the Indians on the Delaware river, weſt of the weſtern bounds of New York, and within the ſuppoſed limits of Connecticut charter, and ſettlements were made thereon by people from, and under the juriſdiction of Connecticut. The charter of Pennſylvania granted to William Penn, in 1681, covered theſe ſettlements. This laid the foundation for a diſpute, which for a long time was maintained with warmth on both ſides. The matter was at laſt ſubmitted to gentlemen choſen for the purpoſe, who decided the diſpute in favour of Pennſylvania. Many, however, ſtill aſſert the juſtice of the Connecticut claim.

The State of Connecticut have ceded to Congreſs all their lands weſt of Pennſylvania, except a reſerve bounded eaſt by Pennſylvania, and extending in length, 120 miles weſt, and in breadth from latitude 41° to 42° 2′ north. This ceſſion, Congreſs have accepted.

The colony of New Haven, though unconnected with the colony of Connecticut, was comprehended within the limits of their charter, and, as they concluded, within their juriſdiction. But New Haven remonſtrated againſt their claim, and refuſed to unite with them, until they ſhould hear from England. It was not until the year 1665, when it was believed that the king's commiſſioners had a deſign upon the New England charters, that theſe two colonies formed an union, which has ever ſince amicably ſubſiſted between them.

In 1672, the laws of the colony were reviſed, and the general court ordered them to be printed: and alſo, "that every family ſhould buy one of the law books—ſuch as pay in ſilver to have a book for twelve pence; ſuch as pay in wheat, to pay a peck and a half a book; and ſuch as pay in peas, to pay two ſhillings a book, the peas at three ſhillings the buſhel." Perhaps it is owing to this early and univerſal ſpread of law books, that the people of Connecticut are to this day ſo fond of the law.

In 1750, the laws of Connecticut were again reviſed, and publiſhed in a ſmall folio volume of 258 pages. Dr. Douglaſs obſerves, "that they were the moſt natural, equitable, plain and conciſe *code* of laws, for plantations, hitherto extant."

There has been a reviſion of them ſince the peace of 1783, in which they were greatly and very judiciouſly ſimplified.

The years 1675 and 1676 were diſtinguiſhed by the wars with Philip and his Indians, and with the Narraganſets, by which the colony was thrown into great diſtreſs and confuſion. The inroads of the enraged ſavages were marked with cruel murders, and with fire and devaſtation,

In 1684, the charter of Maſſachuſetts Bay and Plymouth were taken away, in conſequence of *Quo warrantos* which had been iſſued againſt them. The charter of Connecticut was ſaved by an artful expedient.

Connecticut has ever made rapid advances in population. There have been more emigrations from this than from any of the other States, and yet it is at preſent full of inhabitants. This increaſe may be aſcribed to ſeveral cauſes. The bulk of the inhabitants are induſtrious, ſagacious huſbandmen. Their farms furniſh them with all the neceſſaries, moſt of the conveniencies and but few of the luxuries of life. They of courſe muſt be generally temperate, and if they chooſe, can ſubſiſt with as much independence as is conſiſtent with happineſs. The ſubſiſtence of the farmer is ſubſtantial, and does not depend on incidental circumſtances, like that of moſt other profeſſions. There is no neceſſity of ſerving an apprenticeſhip to the buſineſs, nor of a large ſtock of money to commence it to advantage. Farmers, who deal much in barter, have leſs need of money than any other claſs of people. The eaſe with which a comfortable ſubſiſtence is obtained, induces the huſbandman to marry young. The cultivation of his farm makes him ſtrong and healthful. He toils cheerfully through the day—eats the fruit of his own labour with a gladſome heart—at night devoutly thanks his bounteous God for his daily bleſſings—retires to reſt, and his ſleep is ſweet. Such circumſtances as theſe have greatly contributed to the amazing increaſe of inhabitants in this State.

Beſides, the people live under a free government, and have no fear of a tyrant. There are no overgrown eſtates with rich and ambitious landlords, to have an undue and pernicious influence in the election of civil officers. Property is equally enough divided, and muſt continue to be ſo, as long as the eſtates deſcend as they now do. No perſon qualified by law is prohibited from voting. He who has the moſt merit, not he who has the moſt money, is generally choſen into public office. As inſtances of this, it is to be obſerved, that many of the citizens of Connecticut, from the humble walks of life, have ariſen to the firſt offices in the State, and filled them with dignity and reputation. That baſe buſineſs of electioneering, which is ſo directly calculated to introduce wicked and deſigning men into office, is yet but little known in Connecticut. A man who wiſhes to be choſen into office, acts wiſely, for that end, when he keeps his deſires to himſelf.

A thirſt for learning prevails among all ranks of people in the State. More of the young men in Connecticut, in proportion to their numbers, receive a public education, than in any of the States.

Some have believed, and with reaſon, that the fondneſs for academic and collegiate education is too great—that it induces too many to leave the plough. If men of liberal education would return to the farm, and uſe their knowledge in improving agriculture, and encouraging manufactures, there could not be too many men of learning in the State: but this is too ſeldom the caſe.

Connecticut had but a ſmall proportion of citizens who did not join in oppoſing the oppreſſive meaſures of Great Britain, and was active and influential, both in the field

field and in the cabinet, in bringing about the revolution. Her ſoldiers were applauded by the commander in chief, for their bravery and fidelity.

What has been ſaid in favour of Connecticut, though true when generally applied, needs to be qualified with ſome exceptions. Dr. Douglaſs ſpoke the truth when he ſaid, that "ſome of the meaner ſort are villains." Too many are idle and diſſipated, and much time is unprofitably and wickedly ſpent at taverns, in law ſuits, and petty arbitrations. The public ſchools, in ſome parts of the State, have been too much neglected, and in procuring inſtructors, too little attention is paid to their moral and literary qualifications.

The revolution, which ſo eſſentially affected the governments of moſt of the colonies, produced no very perceptible alteration in the government of Connecticut. While under the juriſdiction of Great Britain, they elected their own governors, and all ſubordinate civil officers, and made their own laws, in the ſame manner, and with as little controul as they now do. Connecticut has ever been a republic, and perhaps as perfect and as happy a republic as has ever exiſted: while other States, more monarchical in their government and manners, have been under a neceſſity of undertaking the difficult taſk of altering their old, or forming new conſtitutions, and of changing their monarchical for republican manners, Connecticut has uninterruptedly proceeded in her old track, both as to government and manners; and, by theſe means, has avoided thoſe convulſions which have rent other States into violent parties.

At the anniverſary election of governor and other public officers, which is held yearly at Hartford on the ſecond Thurſday in May, a ſermon is preached, which is publiſhed at the expenſe of the State.* On theſe occaſions a vaſt concourſe of reſpectable citizens, particularly of the clergy, are collected from every part of the State; and while they add dignity and ſolemnity to the important and joyful tranſactions of the day, ſerve to exterminate party ſpirit, and to harmonize the civil and religious intereſts of the State.

Connecticut has been highly diſtinguiſhed in having a ſucceſſion of governors, eminent both for their religious and political accompliſhments. With the following liſt of their names I ſhall conclude my account of Connecticut:

Colony of New Haven.

Acceſſus.	Names.		Exitus.
1639	Theop. Eaton, Eſq.	-	1659 died.
1659	Fra. Newman, Eſq.	-	1661 died.
1662	William Leet, Eſq.	-	1665

This year, 1665, the colonies of New Haven and Connecticut united, and Governor Winthrop was governor of both, and Governor Leet, deputy-governor.

* Would it not anſwer many valuable purpoſes if the gentlemen, who are annually appointed to preach the election ſermons, would furniſh a ſketch of the hiſtory of the State for the current year, to be publiſhed at the cloſe of their ſermons? Such a ſketch, which might eaſily be made, would render election ſermons much more valuable. They would then be a very authentic *depoſitum* of facts for future hiſtorians of the State—they would be more generally and more eagerly purchaſed and read—they would ſerve to diſſeminate important knowledge, that of the internal affairs of the State, which every citizen ought to know, and might, if judiciouſly executed, operate as a check upon party ſpirit, and upon ambitious and deſigning men.

The Rev. Mr. Benjamin Trumbull, of North Haven, has for ſeveral years, with indefatigable induſtry, been making collections for a hiſtory of Connecticut. His abilities as a writer, and his accuracy as a hiſtorian, the public already know. It is hoped the public will ſhortly be favoured with his hiſtory. Through his indulgence in permitting me to ſelect from his manuſcripts, I am enabled to publiſh many of the above facts.

Colony of Connecticut.

Acceſſus.	Names.	Exitus.
1639	John Haynes, Eſq. -	1640
1640	Edward Hopkins, Eſq. -	1641
1641	John Haynes, Eſq. -	1642
1642	George Wyllis, Eſq. -	1643
1643	John Haynes, Eſq. -	1644
1644	Edward Hopkins, Eſq. -	1645
1645	John Haynes, Eſq. -	1646
1646	Edward Hopkins, Eſq. -	1647
1647	John Haynes, Eſq. -	1648
1648	Edward Hopkins, Eſq. -	1649
1649	John Haynes, Eſq. -	1650
1650	Edward Hopkins, Eſq. -	1651
1651	John Haynes, Eſq. -	1652
1652	Edward Hopkins, Eſq. -	1653
1653	John Haynes, Eſq. died	1653
1654	Edward Hopkins, Eſq. -	1655
1655	Thomas Wells, Eſq. -	1656

Colony of Connecticut.

Acceſſus.	Names.	Exitus.
1656	John Webſter, Eſq. -	1657
1657	John Winthrop, Eſq. -	1658
1658	Thomas Wells, Eſq. -	1659
1659	John Winthrop, Eſq. -	1676
1676	William Leet, Eſq.	1680
1680	Robert Treat, Eſq. -	1696
1696	John Winthrop, Eſq. -	1707
1707	Gurdon Saltonſtall, Eſq. -	1724
1724	Joſeph Talcott, Eſq. -	1741
1741	Jonathan Law, Eſq. -	1751
1751	Roger Woolcot, Eſq. -	1754
1754	Thomas Fitch, Eſq. -	1766
1766	William Pitkin, Eſq. -	1769
1769	Jonathan Trumbull, Eſq.	1784
1784	Matthew Griſwold, Eſq. -	1785
1785	Samuel Huntington, Eſq. -	——

MIDDLE STATES.

We now come to the SECOND GRAND DIVISION *of the* UNITED STATES, *comprehending*

NEW YORK,
NEW JERSEY,
PENNSYLVANIA,
DELAWARE,
TERRITORY N. W. OF OHIO.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED north, by Upper Canada, from which it is ſeparated by the Lakes; eaſt, by the New England States; ſouth, by the Atlantic Ocean, Maryland, Virginia, and the Ohio river, which ſeparates it from Kentucky; weſt, by the Miſſiſſippi river.

RIVERS AND BAYS.] The principal rivers in this diſtrict are, the Hudſon, the Delaware, the Suſquehannah, the Ohio, the Miſſiſſippi, and their branches. York, Delaware, and part of Cheſapeak bays are in this diſtrict.

CLIMATE.] The climate of this Grand Diviſion, lying almoſt in the ſame latitudes, varies but little from that of New England: there are no two ſucceſſive years alike; even the ſame ſucceſſive ſeaſons and months differ from each other every year: and there is, perhaps, but one ſteady trait in the character of this climate, and that is, it is uniformly variable: the changes of weather are great and frequently ſudden. The range of the quickſilver in Fahrenheit's thermometer, according to Dr. Mitchill, is between the 24th degree below, and the 105th degree above cypher; and it has been known to vary 50 degrees in the courſe of 26 hours. Such alterations are much more conſiderable along the coaſt than in the interior and midland parts of the country; and, wherever

ever they prevail, are accompanied with proportionate changes in the air, from calms to winds, and from moiſture to dryneſs. Storms and hurricanes ſometimes happen, which are ſo violent as to overſet veſſels, demoliſh fences, uproot trees, and unroof buildings. Droughts, of ſix weeks or two months continuance, occur now and then. Rain has been known to fall in ſuch abundance that the earth, by meaſurement, has received 6,5 inches on a level, in the ſhort ſpace of four hours.* The quantity of water which falls in rain and ſnow, one year with another, amounts to from 24 to 36 inches.† In the northern parts of this diſtrict the ſnow falls in larger quantities, lies longer, and the cold is more ſteady and intenſe, by many degrees, than in ſouthern; hence the climate of the former is more agreeable in winter, and that of the latter in ſummer. The warmeſt weather is generally in the month of July; but intenſely warm days are often felt in May, June, Auguſt, and September.—Dr. Rittenhouſe ſays, that during his reſidence in the country, in the State of Pennſylvania, he never had paſſed a ſummer without diſcovering froſt in every month in the year, except July. The greateſt degree of heat upon record in Philadelphia, in 1789, was 90°.—The ſtandard temperature of air in Philadelphia is 52½ degrees, which is the temperature of their deepeſt wells, and the mean heat of their common ſpring water. There are ſeldom more than four months in the year in which the weather is agreeable without a fire: in winter, the winds generally come from the N. W. in fair, and from the N. E. in wet weather. The N. W. winds are uncommonly dry as well as cold.

The climate on the weſt ſide of the Allegany mountains differs materially from that on the eaſt ſide, in the temperature of the air, and the effects of the wind upon the weather, and in the quantity of rain and ſnow which fall every year. The S. W. winds, on the weſt ſide of the mountain, are accompanied by cold and rain. The temperature of the air is ſeldom ſo cold or ſo hot, by ſeveral degrees, as on the eaſt ſide of the mountain.

On the whole, it appears that the climate of this diviſion of the United States is a compound of moſt of the climates in the world—it has the moiſture of Ireland in the ſpring—the heat of Africa in ſummer—the temperature of Italy in June—the ſky of Egypt in autumn—the ſnow and cold of Norway, and the ice of Holland, in winter—the tempeſts, in a certain degree, of the Weſt Indies in every ſeaſon—and the variable winds and weather of Great Britain in every month of the year.

From this account of the climate of this diſtrict it is eaſy to aſcertain what degrees of health, and what diſeaſes prevail. As the inhabitants have the climates, ſo they have the acute diſeaſes of all the countries that have been mentioned. Although it might be ſuppoſed, that with ſuch changes and varieties in the weather, there would be connected epidemical diſeaſes and an unwholeſome climate, yet, on the whole, it is found in this diſtrict to be as healthy as any part of the United States.‡

* Dr. Mitchill. † Dr. Ruſh.

‡ The foregoing remarks are grounded on the authorities of Dr. Ruſh and Dr. Mitchill, who have publiſhed the reſult of their inquiries in Mr. Carey's Muſeum, vols. 6th and 7th.

NEW YORK.

Situation and Extent.

Miles.			Sq. Miles.
Length 350, Breadth 300	between	40° 40′ and 45° N. Lat. / 5° W. and 1° 30′ E. Long.	44,000

Boundaries.] Bounded ſouth-eaſtwardly, by the Atlantic Ocean; eaſt, by Connecticut, Maſſachuſetts, and Vermont; north, by the 45th degree of latitude, which divides it from Canada; north-weſtardly, by the river Iroquois, or St. Lawrence, and the lakes Ontario and Erie; ſouth-weſt and ſouth, by Pennſylvania and New Jerſey.

Civil Divisions.] This State is divided into 19 counties, which, by an act of the legiſlature paſſed in March, 1788, were ſubdivided into townſhips.

Counties.	Towns.	No. Inh.	Chief Towns.	No. Inhab.
New York	1	33131	New York City	32328
Albany	20	75736	Albany	3498
Suffolk	8	16440	Eaſt Hampton	3260
			Huntington	1497
Queen's	6	16014	Jamaica	1675
King's	6	4495	Flat Buſh	941
			Brooklyn	1603
Richmond	4	3835	Weſtfield	1151
Weſt Cheſter	21	24003	Bedford	2470
Orange	6	18492	Goſhen	2448
			Orange	1175
Ulſter	14	29397	Kingſton	3929
Dutcheſs	12	45266	Poughkeepſie	2529
			Fiſhkill	5941
Columbia	8	27732	Hudſon	2584
			Kinderhook	4661
Ranſſelaer		formed ſince the cenſus.	Lanſinburg	——
Waſhington	9	14042	Salem	2186
Clinton	4	1614	Plattſburg	458
Montgomery	11	28848	divided ſince the cenſus into three counties.	
Ontario	—	1075	Canadaque	——
	130	340120	Total number of inhabitants in the State, according to the cenſus of 1790.	
New Counties. Herkemer	3	14000	German Flats	1400
Otſego		12000	Cooperſtown	——
Tyoga		7000	Chenango	——
			Union Town	——

1792

Theſe three laſt-mentioned counties have been ſeparated from Montgomery ſince the cenſus, and have acquired the greater part of their inhabitants ſubſequent to that period, moſt of whom emigrated from the New England States. The county of Herkemer is compoſed of the towns of German Flats, Herkemer, and Whiteſtown, which, in 1792, was divided into ſeveral other towns, and contained in 1790, according to the cenſus, 4723 inhabitants; ſince which, this number has been increaſed to upwards of 14,000.

The

The townſhips, into which the counties are divided, are corporations inveſted with certain privileges. The act directs, that the freeholders in the ſeveral townſhips ſhall aſſemble in town meetings, on the firſt Tueſday in April annually, and chooſe their town officers, viz. one ſupervifor, one town clerk, from three to ſeven aſſeſſors, one or more collectors, two overſeers of the poor, commiſſioners of highways, conſtables, fence-viewers, pound-maſters, &c. Theſe are to hold their reſpective offices one year, or until others be choſen. This act, which appears to have originated from a ſpirit of pure republicaniſm, came in force the firſt day of April, 1789. It has a happy tendency to diſſeminate through the State ſuch information and ſuch principles as are calculated to cheriſh the ſpirit of freedom, and to ſupport our republican government. The frequent collection of people in town meetings makes them acquainted with each other, and aſſimilates their ideas and their manners: their being inveſted with power, makes them feel their importance, and rouſes their ambition; their town meetings will be a ſchool, in which all the free citizens of the State may learn how to tranſact buſineſs with propriety, and in which they may qualify themſelves for the higher offices of the State; the number of public offices will be increaſed, without increaſing the expenſes of the State; and as the deſire of promotion is innate in human nature, and as ambition to poſſeſs the requiſite qualifications commonly accompanies this deſire, the probability is, that the number of perſons qualified for public office will be increaſed, and of courſe the number of good citizens proportionably multiplied, and the ſubordinate civil affairs of the State more faithfully and more regularly tranſacted.

Rivers and Canals.] Hudſon's river is one of the largeſt and fineſt rivers in the United States: it riſes in the mountainous country between the lakes Ontario and Champlain. In its courſe ſouth-eaſterly it approaches within ſix or eight miles of Lake George; then, after a ſhort courſe eaſt, turns ſoutherly and receives the Socondaga from the ſouth-weſt, which heads in the neighbourhood of Mohawk river. The courſe of the river thence to New York, where it empties into York Bay, is very uniformly ſouth, 12 deg. or 15 deg. weſt. Its whole length is about 250 miles; from Albany to Lake George is ſixty-five miles. This diſtance, the river is navigable only for batteaux, and has two portages, occaſioned by falls of half a mile each.

The banks of Hudſon's river, eſpecially on the weſtern ſide, as far as the highlands extend, are chiefly rocky cliffs. The paſſage through the highlands, which is ſixteen miles, affords a wild romantic ſcene: in this narrow paſs, on each ſide of which the mountains tower to a great height, the wind, if there be any, is collected and compreſſed, and blows continually as through a bellows: veſſels, in paſſing through it, are often obliged to lower their ſails. The bed of this river, which is deep and ſmooth to an aſtoniſhing diſtance, through a hilly, rocky country, and even through ridges of ſome of the higheſt mountains in the United States, muſt undoubtedly have been produced by ſome mighty convulſion in nature. The tide flows a few miles above Albany, which is 160 miles from New York: it is navigable for ſloops of 80 tons to Albany, and for ſhips to Hudſon: ſhip navigation to Albany is interrupted by a number of iſlands, ſix or eight miles below the city, called the *Overſlaugh*. It is in contemplation to confine the river to one channel, by which means the channel will be deepened, and the difficulty of approaching Albany with veſſels of a larger ſize be removed. About 60 miles above New York the water becomes freſh. The river is ſtored with a variety of fiſh, which renders a ſummer paſſage to Albany delightful and amuſing to thoſe who are fond of angling.

The advantages of this river for carrying on the fur trade with Canada, by means of the lakes, have been already mentioned: its conveniencies for internal commerce are

ſingularly great: the produce of the remoteſt farms is eaſily and ſpeedily conveyed to a certain and profitable market, and at the loweſt expenſe: in this reſpect, New York has greatly the advantage of Philadelphia. A great proportion of the produce of Pennſylvania is carried to market in waggons, over a great extent of country, ſome of which is rough; hence it is that Philadelphia is crowded with waggons, carts, horſes and their drivers, to do the ſame buſineſs that is done in New York, where all the produce of the country is brought to market by water with much leſs ſhew and parade. But Philadelphia has other advantages, which will be mentioned in their proper place, to compenſate for this natural defect. The increaſing population of the fertile lands upon the northern branches of the Hudſon muſt annually increaſe the amazing wealth that is conveyed by its waters to New York: added to this, the ground has been marked out, the level aſcertained, a company incorporated, by the name of "The Preſident, Directors, and Company of the Northern Inland Lock Navigation, in the State of New York," and funds ſubſcribed for the purpoſe of cutting a canal from the neareſt approximating point of Hudſon's river to South Bay, which empties into the ſouth end of Lake Champlain: the diſtance is 18 miles. The difference of level and the face of the country are ſuch, as to juſtify a belief that the opening of this canal will not be leſs practicable than uſeful.

Saranac river paſſes through Plattſburg into Lake Champlain: it has been explored nearly 30 miles, and there found equal in ſize to the mouth. In this river is the greateſt abundance of fiſh, ſuch as ſalmon, baſs, pike, pickerel, trout, &c.

Sable river, not far from the Saranac, is ſcarcely 60 yards wide. On this ſtream are remarkable falls: the whole deſcent of the water is about 200 feet in ſeveral pitches, the greateſt of which is 40 feet perpendicular: at the foot of it the water is unfathomable. A large pine has been ſeen, in a freſhet, to pitch over endwiſe, and remain ſeveral minutes under water. The ſtream is confined by high rocks on either ſide, a ſpace of 40 feet, and the banks at the falls are, at leaſt, as many feet high. In a freſhet the flood wood frequently lodges, and in a few minutes the water riſes to full banks, and then burſts away its obſtructions with a moſt tremendous craſhing. The Big and Little Chazy rivers are in the townſhip of Champlain, which borders on the Canada line: both are navigable ſome miles, the former ſix or ſeven, affording good mill ſeats—ſeveral mills are already erected. The Britiſh have a poſt, and maintain a ſmall garriſon, at Point-au-fer in this townſhip.

The river Boquet paſſes through the town of Willſborough, in Clinton county, and is navigable for boats about two miles, and is there interrupted by falls, on which are mills. At this place are the remains of an entrenchment thrown up by General Burgoyne. Here he gave his famous war feaſt to his "numerous hoſts of ſavages," and here, probably, he firſt *conceived* that celebrated proclamation which he afterwards *brought forth*.

Black river riſes in the high country, near the ſources of Canada Creek, which falls into Mohawk river, and takes its courſe N. W. and then N. E. till it diſcharges itſelf into Cataraqua or Iroquois river, not far from Swegauchee: it is ſaid to be navigable for batteaux up to the lower falls, 60 miles, which is diſtant from the flouriſhing ſettlement of Whiteſtown 25 miles. The whole length of this river is reckoned at 112 miles.

Onondago river riſes in the Oneida lake, runs weſtwardly into Lake Ontario at Oſwego: it is boatable from its mouth to the head of the lake, 74 miles, (except a fall which occaſions a portage of twenty yards) thence batteaux go up Wood Creek almoſt

to Fort Stanwix, 40 miles, whence there is a portage of a mile to Mohawk river. Toward the head waters of this river ſalmon are caught in great quantities.

Mohawk river riſes to the northward of Fort Stanwix, about eight miles from Black river, and runs ſouthwardly 20 miles, to the fort; then eaſtward, 110 miles, into the Hudſon. The produce that is conveyed down this river is landed at Skenectady, and is thence carried by land ſixteen miles, over a barren ſhrub plain, to Albany. Except a portage of about a mile, occaſioned by the little falls, 56 miles above Skenectady, the river is paſſable for boats from Skenectady nearly or quite to its ſource. The perpendicular deſcent of theſe falls is eſtimated at 42 feet in the courſe of one mile; and it is ſuppoſed, they might be locked ſo as to be rendered paſſable for boats carrying five tons, for about 15,000l. currency. The Cohoez in this river are a great curioſity; they are three miles from its entrance into the Hudſon. The river is about 100 yards wide; the rock, over which it pours as over a mill dam, extends almoſt in a line from one ſide of the river to the other, and is about thirty feet perpendicular height. Including the deſcent above, the fall is as much as ſixty or ſeventy feet: the rocks below, in ſome places, are worn many feet deep by the conſtant friction of the water. The view of this tremendous cataract is diminiſhed by the height of the banks on each ſide of the river. About a mile below the falls the river branches and forms a large iſland; but the two mouths may be ſeen at the ſame time from the oppoſite bank of the Hudſon: the branches are fordable at low water, but are dangerous. A company by the name of "The Preſident, Directors, and Company of the Weſtern Inland Lock Navigation, in the State of New York," were incorporated by the legiſlature of New York, in March, 1792, for the purpoſe of opening a lock navigation from the now navigable part of Hudſon's river, to be extended to Lake Ontario, and to the Seneca lake. This rout has been ſurveyed and found practicable, the expenſe eſtimated, and the funds ſubſcribed, and the work is to be executed with all poſſible diſpatch. The opening of this navigation would be a vaſt acquiſition to the commerce of this State. A ſhore of at leaſt 1000 miles in length would, in conſequence of it, be waſhed by boatable waters, excluſive of all the great lakes, and many millions of acres of excellent tillage land, rapidly ſettling, would be accommodated with water communication for conveying their produce to market.

Delaware river riſes in Lake Utſtayantho, lat. 42° 25′, and takes its courſe ſouthweſt, until it croſſes into Pennſylvania in latitude 42°; thence ſouthwardly, dividing New York from Pennſylvania, until it ſtrikes the north-weſt corner of New Jerſey, in latitude 41° 24′; and then paſſes off to ſea, through Delaware bay, having New Jerſey on the eaſt ſide, and Pennſylvania and Delaware on the weſt.

Suſquehannah E. Branch river has its ſource in lake Otſego, lat. 42° 55′, from which it takes a ſouth-weſt courſe: it croſſes the line which divides New York and Pennſylvania three times, the laſt time near Tyoga point, where it receives Tyoga river. Batteaux paſs to its ſource; thence to Mohawk river is but twenty miles, capable of good roads.

Tyoga river riſes in the Allegany mountains, in about latitude 42°, runs eaſtwardly and empties into the Suſquehannah at Tyoga point, in latitude 41° 57′. It is boatable about 50 miles.

Seneca river riſes in the Seneca country, and runs eaſtwardly, and in its paſſage receives the waters of the Seneca and Cayuga lakes, (which lie north and ſouth, ten or twelve miles apart, each is between thirty and forty miles in length, and about a mile in breadth) and empties into the Onondago river, 14 miles above the falls, at a place called Three Rivers. From Three River point to Onondago lake, up Seneca river, is

12 miles. Within half a mile of this lake a ſalt ſpring iſſues from the ground, the water of which is ſalter than that of the ocean: it conſtantly emits water in ſufficient quantity for works of any extent: it is probable the whole country will be ſupplied from this ſpring, and at a very cheap rate. This ſpring is the property of the State. This river is boatable from the lakes downwards.

Cheneſſee river riſes near the ſource of the Tyoga, and runs northwardly by the Cheneſſee caſtle and flats, and empties into Lake Ontario eighty miles eaſt of Niagara fort. On this river is one ſet of large falls, not far from its junction with Lake Ontario. The inhabitants improve theſe falls to good purpoſe, by the erection of mills upon them.

The north eaſt branch of the Allegany river heads in the Allegany mountains, near the ſource of the Tyoga, and runs directly weſt until it is joined by a larger branch from the ſouthward, which riſes near the weſt branch of the Suſquehannah: their junction is on the line between Pennſylvania and New York. From this junction the river purſues a north-weſt courſe, leaving a ſegment of the river of about fifty miles in length, in the State of New York, thence it proceeds in a circuitous ſouth-weſt direction, until it croſſes into Pennſylvania; from thence to its entrance into the Miſſiſſippi, it has already been deſcribed.

There are few fiſh in the rivers, but in the brooks are plenty of trout; and in the lakes, yellow perch, ſunfiſh, ſalmon trout, catfiſh, and a variety of others.

From this account of the rivers, it is eaſy to conceive the excellent advantages for conveying produce to market from every part of the State.

The ſettlements already made in this State, are chiefly upon two narrow oblongs, extending from the city of New York, eaſt and north. The one eaſt, is Long Iſland, which is 140 miles long, narrow, and ſurrounded by the ſea. The one extending north is about forty miles in breadth, and biſected by the Hudſon: and ſuch is the interſection of the whole State by the branches of the Hudſon, the Delaware, the Suſquehannah, and other rivers which have been mentioned, that there are few places throughout its whole extent, that are more than fifteen or twenty miles from ſome boatable or navigable ſtream.

Bays and Lakes.] York bay, which is nine miles long and four broad, ſpreads to the ſouthward before the city of New York. It is formed by the confluence of the Eaſt and Hudſon's rivers, and emboſoms ſeveral ſmall iſlands, of which Governor's Iſland is the principal: it communicates with the ocean through the *Narrows*, between Staten and Long Iſlands, which are ſcarcely two miles wide. The paſſage up to New York from Sandy Hook, the point of land that extends fartheſt into the ſea, is ſafe, and not above twenty miles in length. The common navigation is between the eaſt and weſt banks, in about twenty-two feet water. There is a light-houſe at Sandy Hook on a peninſula from the Jerſey ſhore.

South bay lies 12 or 15 miles north of the northern bend in Hudſon's river: at its north end it receives Wood Creek from the ſouth, which is navigable ſeveral miles, and lined with fine meadows; ſoon after it mingles its waters with Eaſt bay, which ſtretches eaſtward into Vermont. At the junction of theſe bays commences another bay or lake, from half a mile to a mile wide, whoſe banks are ſteep hills, or cliffs of rocks, generally inacceſſible. At Ticonderoga this bay receives the waters of Lake George from the ſouth-weſt, through a large brook, which rolls down a gentle declivity, at the foot of which were formerly a ſet of ſaw mills. The waters of Lake George are 100 feet higher than thoſe of the bay.

Oneida

Oneida Lake lies about twenty miles weſt of Fort Stanwix, and extends weſtward about 30 miles.

Salt Lake is ſmall, and empties into Seneca river ſoon after its junction with the Onondago river, about 12 miles from Three River point. This lake is ſtrongly impregnated with ſaline particles, which circumſtance gave riſe to its name. The Indians make their ſalt from it.

Lake Otſego, at the head of Suſquehannah river, is about nine miles long and narrow, perhaps not more than a mile wide. The land on the banks of this lake is very good, and the cultivation of it eaſy.

Caniaderago lake is nearly as large as Lake Otſego, and ſix miles weſt of it. A ſtream, by the name of Oaks Creek, iſſues from it, and falls into the Suſquehannah river, about five miles below Otſego. The beſt cheeſe in the State of New York is ſaid to be made upon this Creek.

Chatoque lake is the ſource of Conawongo river, which empties into the Allegany: the lower end of it, whence the river proceeds, is in latitude 42° 10′; from thence to its head is about twenty-five miles. From the north-weſt part of this to lake Erie is nine miles, and was once a communication uſed by the French.

On the north ſide of the mountains, in Orange county, is a very valuable tract called the *Drowned Lands*, containing about 40 or 50,000 acres. The waters, which deſcend from the ſurrounding hills, being but ſlowly diſcharged by the river iſſuing from it, cover theſe vaſt meadows every winter, and render them extremely fertile; but they expoſe the inhabitants in the vicinity to intermittents. The Walkhill river which paſſes through this extenſive *amphibious* tract, and empties into Hudſon's river, is in the ſpring ſtored with very large eels in great plenty. The bottom of this river is a broken rock; and, it is ſuppoſed, that for 2000l. the channel might be deepened ſo as to let off all the waters from the meadows, and thereby redeem from the floods a large tract of rich land, for graſs, hemp, and Indian corn.

Roads.] The roads in this State have been in general but illy attended to till within the two or three laſt years. The legiſlature, convinced of the importance of attending to the matter, and perhaps ſtimulated by the enterprizing and active Pennſylvanians, who are competitors for the trade of the weſtern country, have lately granted very liberal ſums towards improving thoſe roads that traverſe the moſt ſettled parts of the country, and opening ſuch as lead into the weſtern and northern parts of the State, uniting, as far as poſſible, the eſtabliſhments on the Hudſon's river, and the moſt populous parts of the interior country by the neareſt practicable diſtances. A poſt regularly rides from Albany to the Cheneſſee river, once a fortnight, through Whiteſtown, Geneva, Canadaqua, Canawargus, and Williamſburgh, on the Cheneſſee river. By this eſtabliſhment a ſafe and direct conveyance is opened between the moſt interior parts of the United States, to the weſt, and the ſeveral States in the Union.

A grand road was opened through Clinton county, which borders upon Canada, in the year 1790, under the direction of a Mr. Rogers, of Dutcheſs county, and after him called Rogers' road. This road adds greatly to the convenience and ſafety of travelling between the State of New York and Canada, eſpecially in the winter, when paſſing the lakes on ice is often dangerous, and always uncomfortable.

A road alſo has been lately cut from Katt's Kill, on the Hudſon, weſtwardly, which paſſes near Owaſco lake.

Bridges.] A bridge, called Staat's Bridge, 250 feet long, and of a ſufficient width to admit two carriages abreaſt, has lately been thrown acroſs Abram's Creek, which falls into Hudſon's river, near the city of Hudſon, by which a communication with the

country, in a new direction, is opened from the city of Hudſon; and a diſtance ſaved of four or five miles in the main poſt road from New York to Albany.

Skaticook bridge, in the town of that name, 10 miles from Lanſinburgh, is an ingenious ſtructure, built at the private expenſe of an enterpriſing and liberal gentleman. It coſt 1400l. currency.

The legiſlature of the State have granted 3000l. to build a bridge over the ſprouts of Mohawk river, whenever the ſum of 1000l. ſhall be ſubſcribed and paid. This bridge will be one of the longeſt in America, and will open a direct communication to a very extenſive country, progreſſing faſt in population, in the north-weſtern parts of the State.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, MOUNTAINS, SOIL, AND PRODUCTIONS.] The State, to ſpeak generally, is interſected by ridges of mountains running in a north-eaſt and ſouth-weſt direction. Beyond the Allegany mountains, however, the country is a dead level, of a fine rich ſoil, covered in its natural ſtate with maple, beech, birch, cherry, black walnut, locuſt, hickory, and ſome mulberry trees. On the banks of Lake Erie are a few cheſnut and oak ridges. Hemlock ſwamps are interſperſed thinly through the country. All the creeks that empty into Lake Erie, have falls, which afford many excellent mill-ſeats.

The lands between the Seneca and Cayuga Lakes are repreſented as uncommonly excellent, being moſt agreebly diverſified with gentle riſings, and timbered with lofty trees, with little underwood. The legiſlature of this State have granted one million and a half acres of land as a gratuity to the officers and ſoldiers of the line of this State. This tract is bounded weſt by the eaſt ſhore of the Seneca Lake, and the Maſſachuſetts lands in the new county of Ontario; north, by part of Lake Ontario near Fort Oſwego; ſouth, by a ridge of the Allegany mountains and the Pennſylvania line; and eaſt, by the Tuſcaroro Creek (which falls nearly into the middle of the Oneida Lake) and that part of Montgomery which has been ſettling by the New England people very rapidly ſince the peace.

This pleaſant country is divided into twenty-five townſhips of 60,000 acres each, which are again ſubdivided into 100 convenient farms, of 600 acres, making in the whole 2,500 farms.

Eaſt of the Allegany mountains the country is broken into hills with rich intervening vallies. The hills are clothed thick with timber, and when cleared afford a very fine paſture: the vallies, when cultivated, produce wheat, hemp, flax, peas, graſs, oats, and Indian corn.

Beſides the trees already mentioned, there are in various parts of the State, the ſeveral kinds of oak, ſuch as white, red, yellow, black, and cheſnut oak; white, yellow, ſpruce, and pitch pines: cedar, fir-tree, butternut, aſpin, commonly called poplar, white wood, which in Pennſylvania is called poplar, and in England the tulip tree, rock, maple, the linden tree, which, with the white wood, grows on the low rich ground, the button wood, ſhrub-cranberry, the fruit of which hangs in cluſters like grapes as large as cherries; this ſhrub too grows on low ground. Beſides theſe is the ſumach, which bears cluſters of red berries: the Indians chew the leaves inſtead of tobacco; the berries are uſed in dyes. Of the commodities produced from culture, wheat is the ſtaple. Of this article in wheat and flour, equivalent to one million buſhels are yearly exported. Indian corn and peas are likewiſe raiſed for exportation; and rye, oats, barley, &c. for home conſumption.

In ſome parts of the State large dairies are kept, which furniſh for the market butter and cheeſe. The beſt lands in this State which lie along the Mowhawk river, and north

north of it, and weſt of the Allegany mountains, are yet moſtly in a ſtate of nature, but are moſt rapidly ſettling.

The county of Clinton in the moſt northern part of the State, on Lake Champlain and Lake George, lies about midway between Quebec and New York, and from 230 to 240 miles from each, and is ſettled by about 2000 inhabitants. A great proportion of the lands in this county are of an excellent quality, and produce in abundance the various kinds of grain cultivated in other parts of the State. The inhabitants manufacture earthen ware, pot and pearl aſh, in large quantities, which they export to New York or Quebec—Their wool is of a better quality than that which is produced in more ſouthern climates; their beef and pork is ſecond to none; and the price of ſtall fed beef in Montreal (diſtant 60 miles from Plattſburg) is ſuch as to encourage the farmers to drive their cattle to that market. Their foreſts ſupply them with ſugar and molaſſes, as every family, with no more implements than are neceſſary for common uſe, can make a ſufficiency for its own conſumption, and that at a ſeaſon when the farmer can be no otherwiſe employed. The ſoil is well adapted to the culture of hemp. The land carriage from any part of the country, in tranſporting their produce to New York, does not exceed 18 miles. The carrying place at Ticonderoga is one mile and a half; and from Fort George at the ſouth end of the lake of the ſame name, to Fort Edward, is but 14 miles; after which there are two or three ſmall obſtructions by falls, which are about to be removed by the proprietors of the northern canal. From this county to Quebec are annually ſent large rafts, the rapids at St. John's and Chamblee being the only interruption in the navigation, and thoſe not ſo great but that at ſome ſeaſons, batteaux with ſixty buſhels of ſalt can aſcend them. At this diſtance from the ſea, ſalt is ſold at half a dollar a buſhel.

In the northern and unſettled parts of the State are a plenty of mooſe deer, bears, ſome beavers, martins, and moſt other inhabitants of the foreſt, except wolves. Ducks, growſe, pigeons, and fiſh of many kinds, and particularly ſalmon, are taken in great abundance in different parts, and eſpecially in the county of Clinton. At the mouth of Saranac river, which falls into Champlain, the ſalmon are found in ſuch plenty, that it is uſual to take 4 or 500 in a day with ſpears and ſmall ſcoop nets. They are caught from May till November, and make excellent ſalted proviſions, and every cottager, by ſpending an hour in the evening, may obtain a ſufficient ſupply for his family.

Population and Character.] For the population of this State, according to the cenſus of 1790, the reader is referred to the table of diviſions. In 1786, the number of inhabitants was 238,897, of which 18,889 were blacks. In 1756, there were 96,775 inhabitants, including 13,542 blacks. The average annual increaſe of inhabitants in this State, from 1756 to 1786, was 4,554. The annual increaſe for the four years ſucceeding 1786, was upwards of 25,000. A great proportion of this increaſe conſiſts of emigrants from the New England States. The population for every ſquare mile, including the whole State, is nearly eight, which ſhews that a great part of the State is yet unſettled.

The effects of the Revolution have been as greatly and as happily felt by this, as by any of the United States. The acceſſion of inhabitants within a few years has been great, even beyond calculation; and ſo long as lands can be obtained upon advantageous terms, and with a good title, and the general government continues to protect induſtry and encourage commerce, ſo long they will continue to increaſe. The new ſettlements that are forming in the northern and weſtern parts

of the State, are principally by people from New England. It is remarkable that the Dutch enterprize few or no ſettlements. Among all the new townſhips that have been ſettled ſince the peace, (and they have been aſtoniſhingly numerous) it is not known that one has been ſettled by the Dutch. Although they are as "intent upon gain" as other people, they had rather reſt ſecure of what they poſſeſs, than hazard all or even a part, in uncertain attempts to increaſe it.

The Engliſh language is generally ſpoken throughout the State, but is not a little corrupted by the Dutch dialect, which is ſtill ſpoken in ſome counties, particularly in King's, Ulſter, Albany, and that part of Orange which lies ſouth of the mountains. But as Dutch ſchools are almoſt, if not wholly diſcontinued, that language, in a few generations, will probably ceaſe to be uſed at all; and the increaſe of Engliſh ſchools has already had a perceptible effect in the improvement of the Engliſh language.

The manners of the people differ as well as their language. The anceſtors of the inhabitants in the ſouthern and middle parts of Long Iſland were either natives of England or the immediate deſcendants of the firſt ſettlers of New England, and their manners and cuſtoms are ſimilar to thoſe of their anceſtors. The counties inhabited by the Dutch have adopted the Engliſh manners in a great degree, but ſtill retain many modes, particularly in their religion, which are peculiar to the Hollanders. They are induſtrious, neat, and economical in the management of their farms and their families. Whatever buſineſs they purſue, they generally follow the old track of their forefathers, and ſeldom invent any new improvements in agriculture, manufactures, or mechanics. They were the firſt ſettlers of this State, and were particularly friendly to the Engliſh colony that ſettled at Plymouth in New England, in 1620; and continued to be amicably diſpoſed towards the Engliſh colonies eaſt of them, until the unhappy diſpute aroſe concerning the lands on Connecticut river.

The revolution, and its conſequences, have had a very perceptible influence in diffuſing a ſpirit of liberality among the Dutch, and in diſpelling the clouds of ignorance and national prejudice. Schools, academies, and colleges, are eſtabliſhed and eſtabliſhing for the education of their children in the Engliſh and learned languages, and in the arts and ſciences, and a literary and ſcientific ſpirit is evidently increaſing. If ſuch are the buddings of improvement in the dawn of our empire, what a rich harveſt may we expect in its meridian!

The city of New York is inhabited principally by merchants, phyſicians, lawyers, mechanics, ſhopkeepers, and tradeſmen compoſed of almoſt all nations and religions. They are generally reſpectable in their ſeveral profeſſions, and ſuſtain the reputation of honeſt, punctual, and fair dealers.

The manners and character of the inhabitants of every Colony or State will take their colouring, in a greater or leſs degree, from the peculiar manners of the firſt ſettlers. It is much more natural for emigrants to a ſettlement to adopt the cuſtoms of the original inhabitants, than the contrary, even though the emigrants ſhould in length of time become the moſt numerous. Hence it is that the neatneſs, parſimony, and induſtry of the Dutch were early imitated by the firſt Engliſh ſettlers in the province, and, until the revolution, formed a diſtinguiſhing trait in their provincial character. It is ſtill diſcernible, though in a much leſs degree, and will probably continue viſible for many years to come.

Beſides the Dutch and Engliſh already mentioned, there are in this State many emigrants from Scotland, Ireland, Germany, and ſome few from France. Many Germans

Germans are ſettled on the Mohawk, and ſome Scots people on the Hudſon, in the county of Waſhington. The principal part of the two former ſettled in the city of New York; and retain the manners, the religion, and ſome of them the language of their reſpective countries. The French emigrants ſettled principally at New Rochelle and on Staten iſland, and their deſcendants, ſeveral of them now fill ſome of the higheſt offices in the United States.

CHIEF TOWNS.] There are three incorporated cities in this State; New York, Albany, and Hudſon. New York is the capital of the State, and ſtands on the ſouth-weſt point of Manhattan, commonly called New York Iſland, at the confluence of the Hudſon and Eaſt rivers. The principal part of the city lies on the eaſt ſide of the iſland, although the buildings extend from one river to the other. The length of the city on Eaſt river is about two miles; but falls much ſhort of that diſtance on the banks of the Hudſon. Its breadth, on an average, is nearly three fourths of a mile; and its circumference may be four miles. The plan of the city is not perfectly regular, but is laid out with reference to the ſituation of the ground. The ground which was unoccupied before the peace of 1783, was laid out in parallel ſtreets of convenient width, which has had a good effect upon the parts of the city lately built. The principal ſtreets run nearly parallel with the rivers. Theſe are interſected, though not at right angles, by ſtreets running from river to river. In the width of the ſtreets there is a great diverſity. Water-ſtreet and Queen-ſtreet, which occupy the banks of Eaſt river, are very conveniently ſituated for buſineſs, but they are low and too narrow; not admitting in ſome places of walks on the ſides for foot-paſſengers. Broad-ſtreet, extending from the Exchange to City-hall, is ſufficiently wide. This was originally built on each ſide of the creek, which penetrated almoſt to the City-hall. This ſtreet is low, but pleaſant. But the moſt convenient and agreeable part of the city is the Broadway. It begins at a point which is formed by the junction of the Hudſon and Eaſt rivers, occupies the height of land between them, upon a true meridional line, riſes gently to the northward, is near 70 feet wide, adorned, where the fort formerly ſtood, (which has lately been levelled) with an elegant brick edifice for the accommodation of the governor of the State, and a public walk from the extremity of the point, occupying the ground of the lower battery, which is now demoliſhed; alſo with two Epiſcopal churches, and a number of elegant private buildings. It terminates, to the northward, in a triangular area, fronting the bridewell and alms-houſe, and commands from any point, a view of the Bay and *Narrows*.

Since the year 1788, that part of the city which was buried in ruins during the war, has been rapidly rebuilding; the ſtreets widened, ſtraitened, raiſed in the middle under an angle ſufficient to carry off the water to the ſide gutters, and foot-ways of brick made on each ſide. At this time, the part that was deſtroyed by fire is almoſt wholly covered with elegant brick houſes.

Wall-ſtreet is generally 50 feet wide and elevated, and the buildings elegant. Hanover-ſquare and Dock-ſtreet are conveniently ſituated for buſineſs, and the houſes well-built. William-ſtreet is alſo elevated and convenient, and is the principal market for retailing dry goods. Many of the other ſtreets are pleaſant, but moſt of them are irregular and narrow.

The houſes are generally built of brick, and the roofs tiled. There are remaining a few houſes built after the old Dutch manner; but the Engliſh taſte has prevailed almoſt a century.

Upon the ſouth-weſt point of the land, a fort with four baſtions formerly ſtood, and alſo a battery below. The area of the fort contained an elegant houſe for the accommodation

commodation of the royal governors, and was conſumed by fire in Governor Tryon's time. This fort and battery were removed in the year 1791.

The moſt magnificent edifice in this city is *Federal-hall*, ſituated at the head of Broad-ſtreet, where its front appears to great advantage. The baſement ſtory is Tuſcan, and is pierced with ſeven openings; four maſſy pillars in the center ſupport four Doric columns and a pediment. The freeze is ingeniouſly divided, to admit 13 ſtars in metopes; theſe, with the American Eagle, and other inſignia in the pediment, and the tablets over the windows, filed with the 13 arrows and the olive-branch united, mark it as a building deſignated for national purpoſes. After entering from the Broad ſtreet, we find a plainly-finiſhed ſquare room, flagged with ſtone, and to which the citizens have free acceſs; from this we enter the veſtibule in the center of the pile, which leads in front to the floor of the repreſentatives' room, or real *Federal-hall*, and through two arches on each ſide by a public ſtair-caſe on the left, and by a private one on the right, to the ſenate-chamber and lobbies.

This veſtibule is paved with marble—is very lofty and well-finiſhed; the lower part is of a light ruſtic, which ſupports a handſome iron gallery; the upper half is in a lighter ſtyle, and is finiſhed with a ſky-light of about 12 by 18 feet, which is decorated with a profuſion of ornament in the richeſt taſte. The repreſentatives' room is a ſpacious and elegant apartment, 61 feet deep, 58 wide, and 36 high, a coved ceiling of about 10 feet high, not included. This room is of an octangular form; four of its ſides are rounded in the manner of niches, and give a graceful variety to the whole. The windows are large, and placed 16 feet from the floor; all below them is finiſhed with plain wainſcot, interrupted only by four chimnies; but above theſe a number of Ionic columns and pilaſters, with their proper entablature, are very judiciouſly diſpoſed, and give great elegance. In the pannels between the windows trophies are carved, and the letters U. S. in a cypher ſurrounded with laurel. The ſpeaker's chair is oppoſite the great door, and raiſed by ſeveral ſteps; the chairs for the members are ranged ſemicircularly, in two rows, in front of the ſpeaker. There are two galleries for the accommodation of ſpectators.

On the left of the veſtibule is a lobby, 19 by 48 feet, finiſhed with Tuſcan pilaſters. This leads to the ſenate-chamber, which is 40 feet long, 30 wide, and 20 high, with an arched ceiling. It has three windows in front and three back. Thoſe in front open into a gallery, 12 feet deep, guarded by an elegant iron railing. In this gallery our beloved PRESIDENT, attended by the Senate and Houſe of Repreſentatives, took his oath of office, in the face of Heaven, and in preſence of a large concourſe of people aſſembled in front.

The ſenate-chamber is decorated with pilaſters, of an order invented by Major L'Enfant the architect, which have a magnificent appearance. The marble, which is uſed in the chimnies, is American; and for beauty of ſhades and poliſh is equal to any of its kind in Europe. Beſides theſe, there are ſeveral other rooms for uſe and convenience; a library, lobbies, and committee rooms above, and guard-rooms below. The building on the whole does much credit to the ingenuity and abilities of the architect.

The other public buildings in the city are, three houſes for public worſhip for the Dutch Reformed church—four Preſbyterian churches—three Epiſcopal churches; two for German Lutherans and Calviniſts—two Friends' meeting-houſes—two for Baptiſts—two for Methodiſts—one for Moravians—one Roman Catholic church—one French Proteſtant church, out of repair—and a Jew's ſynagogue. Beſides theſe, there is the governor's houſe already mentioned, a moſt elegant building—the college, gaol, and

ſeveral

ſeveral other buildings of leſs note. The city is accommodated with four markets in different parts, which are furniſhed with a great plenty and variety of proviſions in neat and excellent order.

The government of the city, which was incorporated in 1696, is now in the hands of a mayor, aldermen, and common-council. The city is divided into ſeven wards, in each of which there is choſen annually by the people, an alderman and an aſſiſtant, who, together with the recorder, are appointed annually by the council of appointment.

The mayor's court, which is held from time to time by adjournment, is in high reputation as a court of law.

A court of ſeſſions is likewiſe held for the trial of criminal cauſes.

The ſituation of the city is both healthy and pleaſant. Surrounded on all ſides by water, it is refreſhed with cool breezes in ſummer, and the air in winter is more temperate than in other places under the ſame parallel. York Iſland is 15 miles in length, and hardly one in breadth. It is joined to the Main by a bridge, called *King's bridge*. The channels between Long and Staten Iſlands, and between Long and York Iſlands, are ſo narrow as to occaſion an unuſual rapidity of the tides, which is increaſed by the confluence of the waters of the Hudſon and Eaſt river: this rapidity in general prevents the obſtruction of the channel by ice, ſo that the navigation is clear, except for a few days in ſeaſons when the weather is uncommonly ſevere. There is no baſon or bay for the reception of ſhips; but the road where they lie, in Eaſt river, is defended from the violence of the ſea by the iſlands, which interlock with each other; ſo that except that of Rhode Iſland, and Portland, in the diſtrict of Main, the harbour of New York, which admits ſhips of any burthen, is the beſt in the United States.

This city is eſteemed the moſt eligible ſituation for commerce in the United States. It almoſt neceſſarily commands the trade of one half New Jerſey, moſt of that of Connecticut, and part of that of Maſſachuſetts, and almoſt the whole of Vermont, beſides the whole fertile interior country, which is penetrated by one of the largeſt rivers in America. This city imports moſt of the goods conſumed, between a line of 30 miles eaſt of Connecticut river, and 20 miles weſt of the Hudſon, which is 130 miles, and between the ocean and the confines of Canada, about 400 miles; a conſiderable portion of which is the beſt peopled of any part of the United States, and the whole territory contains at leaſt 800,000 people, or one fifth of the inhabitants of the Union. Beſides, ſome of the other States are partially ſupplied with goods from New York. But in the ſtaple commodity, (flour) Pennſylvania and Maryland have exceeded it—the ſuperfine flour of thoſe States commanding a higher price than that of New York; not that the quality of the grain is worſe, but becauſe greater attention is paid in thoſe States to the inſpection and manufacture of that article.

In the manufacture, likewiſe, of iron, paper, cabinet works, &c. Pennſylvania exceeds not only New York, but all her ſiſter States. In time of peace, however, New York will command more commercial buſineſs than any town in the United States. In time of war it will be inſecure without a marine force; but a ſmall number of ſhips will be able to defend it from the moſt formidable attacks by ſea.

A want of good water is a great inconvenience to the citizens, there being few wells in the city. Moſt of the people are ſupplied every day with freſh water, conveyed to their doors in caſks, from a pump near the head of Queen-ſtreet, which receives it from a ſpring almoſt a mile from the center of the city. This well is about 20 feet deep, and four feet diameter The average quantity drawn daily from this remarkable well is 110 hogſheads of 130 gallons each. In ſome hot ſummer-days 216 hogſheads

have been drawn from it; and what is very ſingular, there are never more or leſs than three feet of water in the well. The water is ſold commonly at 3d. a hogſhead at the pump. Several propoſals have been made by individuals to ſupply the citizens by pipes; but none have yet been accepted.

New York is the gayeſt place in America. The ladies, in the richneſs and brilliancy of their dreſs, are not equalled in any city in the United States; not even in Charlestown, South Carolina, which has heretofore been called the center of the *beau monde*. The ladies, however, are not ſolely employed in attentions to dreſs; there are many who are ſtudious to add to the brilliant external accompliſhments, the more brilliant and laſting accompliſhments of the mind: nor have they been unſucceſsful; for New York can boaſt of great numbers of refined taſte, whoſe minds are highly improved, and whoſe converſation is as inviting as their perſonal charms. Tinctured with a Dutch education, they manage their families with good œconomy and ſingular neatneſs.

In point of ſociability and hoſpitality, New York is hardly exceeded by any town in the United States. If, however, in regard to theſe agreeable characteriſtics, the preference muſt be given to any one place, it decidedly belongs to Charleſtown, South Carolina. Some travellers have, in theſe reſpects, given Boſton the preference to New York.

An inquirer, who would wiſh to acquaint himſelf with the State of the people of New York, their manners and government, would naturally aſk the citizens for their ſocieties for the encouragement of ſciences, arts, manufactures, &c.; for their public libraries; for their patrons of literature; their well-regulated academies; for their female academy for inſtructing young ladies in geography, hiſtory, belles lettres, &c. Such inquiries might be made with propriety, but could not at preſent be anſwered ſatisfactorily. From the ſpirit of improvement, however, which has of late appeared, there is reaſon to believe, that this trait in the character of the citizens of New York will ſoon give place to one diſtinguiſhed for a preference for theſe things.

On a general view of this city, as deſcribed thirty years ago, and in its preſent ſtate, the compariſon is flattering to the preſent age; particularly the improvements in taſte, elegance of manners, and that eaſy unaffected civility and politeneſs which form the happineſs of ſocial intercourſe.

It is found, by a memorandum in one of the old regiſters, that the number of inhabitants in the city, taken by order of the King, in the year 1697, was as follows:

Whites	Men	946	Negroes	Men	209
	Women	1018		Women	205
	Young men and boys	864		Boys and girls	161
	Young women and girls	899			
Total		3727	Total		575

The number of inhabitants in the city and county of New York in 1756 was 10,881; 1771—21,863; 1786—23,614; 1790—33,131.

The city of Albany is ſituated upon the weſt ſide of Hudſon's river, 160 miles north of the city of New York, in latitude 42° 36′, and is, by charter granted in 1686, one mile upon the river, and 16 miles back. It contains upwards of 1000 houſes, built moſtly by trading people on the margin of the river. The houſes ſtand chiefly upon Pearl, Market, and Water ſtreets, and ſix other ſtreets or lanes, which croſs them at

right angles. They are moſtly built in the old Dutch Gothic ſtyle, with the gable end to the ſtreet, which cuſtom the firſt ſettlers brought with them from Holland. The gable end is commonly of brick, with the heavy-moulded ornament of ſlaunting with notches, like ſtairs, and an iron horſe for a weather-cock at top. The houſes are ſeldom more than one ſtory and a half high, and have but little convenience, and leſs elegance; but they are kept very neat, being rubbed with a mop almoſt every day, and ſcoured every week. Many new houſes, however, have lately been built in this city, all in the modern ſtyle; the inhabitants are paving the ſtreets in the New York plan with foot-ways, and making other improvements.

The city of Albany contains about 4000 inhabitants, collected from various parts. As great a variety of languages are ſpoken in Albany as in any town in the United States, but the Engliſh predominates, and the uſe of every other is conſtantly leſſening. Adventurers, in purſuit of wealth, are led here by the advantages for trade, which this place affords.

Albany is unrivalled in its ſituation. It ſtands on the bank of one of the fineſt rivers in the world, at the head of ſloop navigation. It enjoys a ſalubrious air, as is evinced by the longevity of its inhabitants. It is the natural emporium of the increaſing trade of a large extent of country weſt and north; a country of an excellent ſoil, abounding in every article for the Weſt India market, plentifully watered with navigable lakes, creeks, and rivers, as yet only partially peopled, but ſettling with almoſt unexampled rapidity, and capable of affording ſubſiſtence and affluence to millions of inhabitants. No part of America affords a more eligible opening for emigrants than this; and when the contemplated locks and canals are completed, the bridge over the Mohawk river erected, and convenient roads opened into every part of the country, all which will, it is expected, be accompliſhed in a few years, Albany will probably increaſe and flouriſh beyond almoſt every other city or town in the United States.

The well-water in this city is extremely bad, ſcarcely drinkable by thoſe who are not accuſtomed to it. It oozes through a ſtiff blue clay, and it imbibes in its paſſage the fine particles common to that kind of ſoil: this diſcolours it, and when expoſed any length of time to the air, it acquires a diſagreeable taſte. Indeed, all the water for cooking is brought from the river, and many families uſe it to drink. The water in the wells is unwholeſome, being full of little inſects, reſembling, except in ſize, thoſe which we frequently ſee in ſtagnated rain-water. But the inhabitants are about to remedy this inconvenience, by conſtructing water-works to convey good water into the city.

The public buildings are, a Low Dutch church, one for Preſbyterians, one for Germans or High Dutch, one for Epiſcopalians—a hoſpital, the city-hall, and a handſome brick gaol.

The city of Hudſon has had the moſt rapid growth of any place in America, if we except Baltimore, in Maryland. It is ſituated on the eaſt ſide of Hudſon's river, in latitude 42° 23′, and is 130 miles north of New York; 30 miles ſouth of Albany, and four miles weſt from Old Claverack town. It is ſurrounded by an extenſive and fertile back country, and, in proportion to its ſize and population, carries on a large trade.

No longer ago than the autumn of 1783, Meſſrs. Seth and Thomas Jenkins, from Providence, in the State of Rhode Iſland, having firſt reconnoitred all the way up the river, fixed on the unſettled ſpot where Hudſon now ſtands, for a town. To this ſpot they found the river was navigable for veſſels of any ſize. They purchaſed a tract of

about a mile ſquare, bordering on the river, with a large bay to the ſouthward, and divided it into thirty parcels or ſhares. Other adventurers were admitted to proportions, and the town was laid out in ſquares, formed by ſpacious ſtreets, croſſing each other at right angles: each ſquare contains thirty lots, two deep, divided by a twenty feet alley; each lot is fifty feet in front and 120 feet in depth.

In the ſpring of 1784, ſeveral houſes and ſtores were erected. The increaſe of the town from this period to the ſpring of 1786, two years only, was aſtoniſhingly rapid, and reflects great honour upon the enterprizing and perſevering ſpirit of the original founders. In the ſpace of time juſt mentioned, no leſs than 150 dwelling houſes, beſides ſhops, barns, and other buildings, four warehouſes, ſeveral wharves, ſpermaceti works, a covered rope walk, and one of the beſt diſtilleries in America, were erected, and 1500 ſouls collected on a ſpot, which, three years before, was improved as a farm, and but two years before began to be built. Its increaſe ſince has been very rapid; a printing-office has been eſtabliſhed, and ſeveral public buildings have been erected, beſides dwelling houſes, ſtores, &c. The inhabitants are plentifully and conveniently ſupplied with water, brought to their cellars in wooden pipes from a ſpring two miles from the town.

It ſtands on an eminence, from which are extenſive and delightful views to the north-weſt, north, and round that way to the ſouth-eaſt, conſiſting of hills and vallies, variegated with woods and orchards, corn-fields and meadows, with the river, which is in moſt places a mile over, and may be ſeen a conſiderable diſtance to the northward, forming a number of bays and creeks. From the ſouth-eaſt to the ſouth-weſt, the city is ſcreened with hills at different diſtances, and weſt, afar off over the river and a large valley, the proſpect is bounded by a chain of ſtupendous mountains, called the Katts-kill, running to the weſt-north-weſt, which add magnificence and ſublimity to the whole ſcene.

Upwards of twelve hundred ſleighs entered the city daily, for ſeveral days together, in February 1786, loaded with grain of various kinds, boards, ſhingles, ſtaves, hoops, iron ware, ſtone for building, fire-wood, and ſundry articles of proviſion for the market, from which ſome idea may be formed of the advantage of its ſituation with reſpect to the country adjacent, which is every way extenſive and fertile, particularly weſtward. The original proprietors of Hudſon offered to purchaſe a tract of land adjoining the ſouth part of the city of Albany, and were conſtrained, by a refuſal of the propoſition, to become competitors for the commerce of the northern country, when otherwiſe they would have added great wealth and conſequence to Albany.

Poughkeepſie is the ſhire town of Dutcheſs county, and is ſituated upon the eaſt ſide of Hudſon's river, and north of Wapping kill or creek. It is a pleaſant little town, and has frequently been the ſeat of the State government.

Lanſinburgh, formerly called the New City, ſtands on the eaſt ſide of the Hudſon, juſt oppoſite the ſouth branch of Mohawk river, and nine miles north of Albany. It is a very flouriſhing place, pleaſantly ſituated on a plain at the foot of a hill.

Kingſton is the county town of Ulſter. Before it was burnt by the Britiſh, in 1777, it contained about 200 houſes, regularly built on an elevated dry plain, at the mouth of a little pleaſant ſtream, called Euſopus kill or creek, that empties into the Hudſon; but is nearly two miles weſt from the river. The town has been rebuilt.

Skenectady is ſixteen miles north-weſt of Albany, in Albany county, ſituated on the banks of the Mohawk river. The town is compact and regular, built of brick, and, excepting a few, in the old Dutch ſtyle, on a rich flat of low land, ſurrounded with hills. The windings of the river through the town, and the fields, which are often overflowed

overflowed in the ſpring, afford a beautiful proſpect about harveſt time. As it is at the foot of navigation on a long river, which paſſes through a very fertile country, one would ſuppoſe it to embrace much of the commerce of it; but originally knowing no other than the fur trade, ſince the revolution the place has decayed, and no advantage been taken of its happy ſituation.

Plattſburgh is an extenſive townſhip in Clinton county, ſituated on the weſt margin of Lake Champlain. From the ſouth part of the town the mountains trund away wide from the lake, and leave a charming tract of excellent land, of a rich loam, well watered, and about an equal proportion ſuitable for meadow and for tillage. The land riſes in a gentle aſcent for ſeveral miles from the lake, of which every farm will have a delightful view. Seven years ago, this townſhip and the whole county indeed, which at preſent contains ſeveral thouſand inhabitants, was a wilderneſs; now they have a houſe for public worſhip, a court houſe, and gaol. The courts of common pleas and general ſeſſions of the peace ſit here twice in a year. They have artiſans of almoſt every kind among them, and furniſh among themſelves all the materials for building, glaſs excepted. Polite circles may here be found, and the genteel traveller be entertained with the luxuries of a ſea-port, a tune on the harpſichord, and a philoſophical converſation. This, with many other inſtances of the kind, ſerve to verify a prophetic remark, in a letter of Congreſs to their conſtituents, written in a time of gloomy deſpondency, to the following purport: "Vaſt lakes and rivers, ſcarcely known or explored, whoſe waters have rolled for ages in ſilence and obſcurity to the ocean, and extenſive wilderneſſes of fertile ſoil, the dwelling place of ſavage beaſts, ſhall yet hear the din of induſtry, become ſubſervient to commerce, and boaſt delightful villas, gilded ſpires, and ſpacious cities riſing on their banks, and fields loaded with the fruit of cultivation."

Agriculture and Manufactures.] New York is conſiderably behind her neighbours in New England, New Jerſey, and Pennſylvania, in point of improvements in agriculture and manufactures. Among other reaſons for this deficiency, that of want of enterprize in the inhabitants is not the leaſt. Indeed their local advantages have been ſuch as that they have grown rich without enterprize. Beſides, lands have hitherto been cheap, and farms of courſe large, and it requires much leſs ingenuity to raiſe 1000 buſhels of wheat upon ſixty acres of land, than to raiſe the ſame quantity upon thirty acres. So long, therefore, as the farmer in New York can have ſixty acres of land to raiſe 1000 buſhels of wheat, he will never trouble himſelf to find out how he can raiſe the ſame quantity upon half the land. It is population alone that ſtamps a value upon lands, and lays a foundation for high improvements in agriculture. When a man is obliged to maintain a family on a ſmall farm, his invention is exerciſed to find out every improvement that may render it more productive. This appears to be the great reaſon why the lands on Delaware and Connecticut rivers produce the farmer twice as much clear profit as lands in equal quantity and of the ſame quality upon the Hudſon. If the preceding obſervation be juſt, improvements will keep pace with population and the increaſing value of lands. Another cauſe, which has heretofore operated in preventing agricultural improvements in this State, has been their government, which, in the manner it was conducted until the revolution, was extremely unfavourable to improvements of almoſt every kind, and particularly in agriculture. The governors were many of them land jobbers, bent on making their fortunes, and being inveſted with power to do this, they either engroſſed for themſelves, or patented away to their particular favourites, a very great proportion of the whole province. This, as has been before obſerved, proved an effectual bar to population, and of courſe, according to our preſent hypotheſis, has kept down the

price of lands, and ſo prevented improvements in agriculture. It ought to be obſerved, in this connection, that theſe over-grown eſtates could be cultivated only by the hands of tenants, who, having no right in the ſoil, and no certain proſpect of continuing upon the farm which they held at the will of their landlord, had no motives to make thoſe expenſive improvements, which, though not immediately productive, would prove very profitable in ſome future period. The tenant, dependent on his landlord for his annual ſupport, confines his views and improvements to the preſent year; while the independent freeholder, ſecure of his eſtate for himſelf and his ſucceſſors, carries his views into futurity, and early lays the foundation for growing improvement. But theſe obſtacles have been removed, in a great meaſure, by the revolution. The genius of the government of this State, however, ſtill favours large monopolies of lands, which have, for ſome years back, been granted without regard either to quantity or ſettlement. The fine fertile country of the Mohawk, in Montgomery county, which was formerly poſſeſſed by Sir William Johnſon, and other land jobbers, who were enemies to their country, has been forfeited to the State, and is now ſplit up into freehold eſtates, and ſettling with aſtoniſhing rapidity.

The foregoing obſervations will in a great meaſure account for the great neglect of manufactural improvements. Mr. Smith in his hiſtory of New York, more than thirty years ago, obſerved, "It is much owing to the diſproportion between the number of our inhabitants, and the vaſt tracts ſtill remaining to be ſettled, that we have not as yet entered upon ſcarcely any other manufactures than ſuch as are indiſpenſably neceſſary for our home convenience." This ſame cauſe has operated ever ſince in the ſame way, though not of late in the ſame degree.

Great improvements in agriculture cannot be expected (unleſs they are made by a few individuals who have a particular genius for that buſineſs) ſo long as lands are plenty and cheap; and improvements in manufactures never precede, but invariably follow improvements in agriculture. Theſe obſervations apply more particularly to the country. The city of New York contains a great number of people, who are employed in various kinds of manufactures. Among many other articles manufactured in this city are wheel carriages of all kinds, loaf ſugar, bread, beer, ſhoes and boots, ſaddlery, cabinet work, cutlery, hats, wool cards, clocks, watches, potters ware, umbrellas, all kinds of mathematical and muſical inſtruments, ſhips, and every thing neceſſary for their equipment. Glaſs works, and ſeveral iron works, have been eſtabliſhed in different parts of the country, but they never till lately have been very productive, owing ſolely to the want of workmen, and the high price of labour, its neceſſary conſequence. The internal reſources and advantages for theſe manufactories, ſuch as ore, wood, water, hearth ſtone, proper ſituations for bloomeries, forges, and all kinds of water works, are immenſe. There are ſeveral paper mills in the State, which are worked to advantage. The manufacture of maple ſugar, within a few years paſt, has become an object of great importance. As many as 300 cheſts of 400lb. each, were made in the thinly inhabited county of Otſego, in the year 1791; beſides large quantities, ſufficient for home conſumption, in other newly-ſettled parts of the State.

TRADE.] The ſituation of New York, with reſpect to foreign markets, has decidedly the preference to any of the States. It has, at all ſeaſons of the year, a ſhort and eaſy acceſs to the ocean. We have already mentioned that it commands the trade of a great proportion of the beſt ſettled and beſt cultivated parts of the United States. New York has not been unmindful of her ſuperior local advantages, but has availed herſelf of them to their full extent.

Their

Their exports to the Weſt Indies are, biſcuit, peas, Indian corn, apples, onions, boards, ſtaves, horſes, ſheep, butter, cheeſe, pickled oyſters, beef and pork. But wheat is the ſtaple commodity of the State, of which no leſs than 677,700 buſhels were exported in the year 1775, beſides 2,555 tons of bread, and 2,828 tons of flour. Inſpectors of flour are appointed to prevent impoſitions, and to ſee that none is exported but that which is deemed by them merchantable. Weſt India goods are received in return for theſe articles. Beſides the above mentioned articles, are exported flax-ſeed, cotton wool, ſarſaparilla, coffee, indigo, rice, pig iron, bar iron, pot aſh, pearl aſh, furs, deers ſkins, log-wood, fuſtic, mahogany, bees-wax, oil, Madeira wine, rum, tar, pitch, turpentine, whale fins, fiſh, ſugars, molaſſes, ſalt, tobacco, lard, &c. but moſt of theſe articles are imported for re-exportation. The trade of this State has greatly increaſed ſince the revolution, and the balance is almoſt conſtantly in its favour. The exports to foreign parts, for the year ending September 30th, 1791, conſiſting principally of the articles above enumerated, amounted to 2,516,197 dollars. This State owns 46,626 tons of ſhipping, beſides which ſhe finds employment for about 40,000 tons of foreign veſſels.

MEDICINAL SPRINGS.] The moſt noted ſprings in this State are thoſe of Saratoga: they are eight or nine in number, ſituated in the margin of a marſh, formed by a branch of Kayadaroſſora Creek, about twelve miles weſt from the confluence of Fiſh Creek and Hudſon's river. They are ſurrounded by a rock of a peculiar kind, formed by petrifactions. One of them, however, more particularly attracts the attention; it riſes above the ſurface of the earth five or ſix feet, in the form of a pyramid. The aperture in the top, which diſcovers the water, is perfectly cylindrical, of about nine inches diameter. In this the water is about twelve inches below the top, except at the time of its annual diſcharge, which is commonly in the beginning of ſummer. At all times it appears to be in as great agitation as if boiling in a pot, although it is extremely cold. The ſame appearances obtain in the other ſprings, except that the ſurrounding rocks are of different figures, and the water flows regularly from them.

By obſervation and experiment, the principal impregnation of the water is found to be a foſſile acid, which is predominant in the taſte. It is alſo ſtrongly impregnated with a ſaline ſubſtance, which is very diſcernible in the taſte of the water, and in the taſte and ſmell of the petrified matter about it. From the corroſive and diſſolving nature of the acid, the water acquires a chalybeate property, and receives into its compoſition a portion of calcareous earth, which, when ſeparated, reſembles an impure magneſia. As the different ſprings have no eſſential variance in the nature of their waters, but the proportions of the chalybeate impregnation, it is rendered probable that they are derived from one common ſource, but flow in ſeparate channels, where they have connection with metallic bodies in greater or leſs proportions. The ſtomachs of ſome females, however, are ſo delicate, as to perceive a difference in the effect and operation of the different ſprings.

The prodigious quantity of air contained in this water makes another diſtinguiſhing property of it. This air, ſtriving for enlargement, produces the fermentation and violent action of the water before deſcribed. After the water has ſtood a ſmall time in an open veſſel (no tight one will contain it) the air eſcapes, the water becomes vapid, and loſes all that life and pungency which diſtinguiſh it when firſt taken from the pool. The particles of diſſolved earth are depoſited as the water flows off, which, with the combation of the ſalts and fixt air, concrete and form the rocks about the ſprings.

As

As to the quality of theſe medicinal ſprings, to moſt people who drink the waters, they are at firſt very diſagreeable, having a ſtrong, brackiſh, briny taſte; but uſe in a great meaſure takes off the nauſeouſneſs, and renders them palateable, and to many very grateful. Upon a few they operate as an emetic; upon moſt as cathartic and diuretic. They may be taken in very large quantities without ſenſible injury, or diſagreeable operation.

The following curious experiments made on theſe waters, are extracted from Dr. Mitchell's Journal:

"A young turkey held a few inches above the water in the crater of the lower ſpring, was thrown into convulſions in leſs than half a minute, and gaſping, ſhewed ſigns of approaching death; but on removal from that place, and expoſure to the freſh air, revived and became lively. On immerſion again for a minute in the gas, the bird was taken out languid and motionleſs.

A ſmall dog put into the ſame cavity, and made to breathe the contained air, was, in leſs than one minute, thrown into convulſive motions, made to pant for breath, and laſtly to loſe entirely the power to cry or move; when taken out, he was too weak to ſtand, but ſoon, in the common air, acquired ſtrength enough to riſe and ſtagger away.

A trout recently caught, and briſkly ſwimming in a pail of brook water, was carefully put into a veſſel juſt filled from the ſpring, the fiſh was inſtantly agitated with violent convulſions, gradually loſt the capacity to move and poiſe itſelf, grew ſtupid and inſenſible, and in a few minutes was dead.

A candle repeatedly lighted and let down near the ſurface of the water, was ſuddenly extinguiſhed, and not a veſtige of light or fire remained on the wick.

A bottle filled with the water and ſhaken emits ſuddenly a large quantity of aerial matter, that either forces out the cork, or makes a way beſide or through it, or burſts the veſſel.

A quantity of wheaten flour moiſtened with this water and kneaded into dough, when made into cakes and put into a baking pan, roſe, during the application of heat, into light and ſpongy bread, without the aid of yeaſt or leaven.

From which it appears that the air extricated from the water is preciſely ſimilar to that produced by ordinary fermentation.

Some lime water, made of ſtalactites brought from the ſubterranean cave at Rhinebec, became immediately turbid on mixture with the ſpring water, but when the water had been lately drawn, the precipitate was quickly re-diſſolved.

Some of the rock ſurrounding the ſpring, on being put into the fire, calcined to quick-lime and ſlacked very well.

When the aerial matter has evaporated, the water loſes its tranſparency and lets fall a calcareous ſediment.

Whence it is true, that the gas is aerial acid, that the rock is lime-ſtone, and that by means of the former the water becomes capable of diſſolving and conveying the latter.

Great numbers of people, under a variety of maladies, reſort to theſe ſprings, and many find relief, and a conſiderable number a complete cure, particularly in bilious diſorders, ſalt rheum, and relaxations. But as the waters are unfriendly and even fatal in ſome diſorders, they ought to be uſed under the direction of a phyſician thoroughly acquainted with the qualities of the waters, and the diſeaſes of the patients. Ignorant of the ſuitableneſs of the waters to their complaints, many have imprudently thrown away their lives in the uſe of them."

New

New Lebanon ſprings are next in celebrity to thoſe of Saratoga. New Lebanon is a pleaſant village, ſituated partly in a vale, and partly on the declivity of hills. The pool is ſituated on a commanding eminence, overlooking the valley, and ſurrounded with a few houſes, which afford but indifferent accommodations for the valetudinarians who reſort here in ſearch of health. The waters have an agreeable temperature, and are not unpleaſant to the taſte. From the experiments of Dr. Mitchell, it appears that the water contains no iron, no lime, no neutral ſalt, no fixed air, no other acid; that ſoap unites very well with the water, makes a good lather, and is excellent for bleaching cloths; that the ſpring is a *Thermæ*, and has a plenty of lime-ſtone in its neighbourhood. Its warmth is ſo conſiderable that during the coolneſs of the morning, even in Auguſt, copious vapours are emitted by the pool, and the ſtream which iſſues from it, for a conſiderable diſtance; but the evaporated matter has no peculiar odour. From all which particulars taken together, this theory rationally reſults; a quantity of iron and brimſtone, ſomewhere within the mountain, are, by reaſon of their chemical affinity, in the act of combining into *martial pyrites*. During their action upon each other, *heat* is produced, and *pure air* abſorbed. The water running in the neighbourhood of this bed of pyrites borrows ſome of its heat, and receives alſo that part of the atmoſpheric fluid which remains after the conſumption of the pure air, to wit, *foul* or *azotic gas*. But as the heat is excited in the bowels of a calcareous mountain, it happens, that by the combination of the *lime-ſtone with a very ſmall portion of the ſulphur, a calcareous hepar is formed*, which flying off in the form of *hepatic gas*, gives an exceedingly ſlight tincture to the water of the pool. Theſe waters are uſed with ſucceſs, it is ſaid, in ſcorbutic and rheumatic diſeaſes, ſalt rheums, &c. but are pernicious to conſumptive perſons.

In the new town of Renſſalaer, nearly oppoſite the city of Albany, a medicinal ſpring has lately been diſcovered, combining moſt of the valuable properties of the celebrated waters of Saratoga. Should further experiments confirm the favorable opinion already entertained of this ſpring, it will prove a fortunate diſcovery for the city of Albany, and for the country adjoining, as well as for the invalids who annually reſort to Saragota, under many inconveniencies and at a great expenſe.

The ſalt ſprings we have already mentioned. The weight of a buſhel of the ſalt made of theſe waters is 56lb. and is equal in goodneſs to that imported from Turks Iſland.

Minerals and Fossils.] This State emboſoms vaſt quantities of iron ore. Naturaliſts obſerve that ore, in ſwamps and pondy ground, vegetates and increaſes. There is a ſilver mine at Philipſburg, which produces virgin ſilver. Lead is found in Herkemer county, and ſulphur in Montgomery. Spar, zink or ſpelter, a ſemi-metal, magnez, uſed in glazings, pyrites of a golden hue, various kinds of copper ore, and lead and coal mines, are found in this State. Alſo petrified wood, plaſter of Paris, iſinglaſs in ſheets, talc and cryſtals of various kinds and colours, flint, aſbeſtos, and ſeveral other foſſils. A ſmall black ſtone has alſo been found, which vitrifies with a ſmall heat, and, it is ſaid, makes excellent glaſs.

Literary and Humane Societies.] There are very few ſocieties for improvement in knowledge or humanity in this State; and theſe few are in the city of New York. The firſt is, "The ſociety for promoting uſeful knowledge." This ſociety is upon an eſtabliſhment ſimilar to other philoſophical ſocieties in Europe and America, but is not incorporated. The members meet once a month. Secondly,

"The

"The Society for the manumiſſion of ſlaves and protecting ſuch of them as have been or may be liberated." This ſociety meets once a quarter. Both theſe ſocieties conſiſt of gentlemen of the firſt character in the city, and of ſome in other parts of the State. Beſides theſe there is a Marine ſociety, a ſociety for the relief of poor Debtors confined in gaol. A manufacturing ſociety, an Agricultural ſociety lately eſtabliſhed, of which the members of the legiſlature are *ex officiis* members, and a Medical ſociety.

LITERATURE, COLLEGES, ACADEMIES, &c.] Until the year 1754, there was no college in the province of New York. The ſtate of literature, at that time, I ſhall give in the words of their hiſtorian: "Our ſchools are in the loweſt order; the inſtructors want inſtruction, and through a long and ſhameful neglect of all the arts and ſciences, our common ſpeech is extremely corrupt, and the evidences of a bad taſte, both as to thought and language, are viſible in all our proceedings, public and private." This may have been a juſt repreſentation at the time when it was written; but much attention has ſince been paid to education. There are eight incorporated academies in different parts of the State; but many parts of the country are yet either unfurniſhed with ſchools, or the ſchools which they have are kept by low, ignorant men, which are worſe than none; for children had better remain in ignorance than be illy taught. We are happy to add, that the legiſlature have lately patronized collegiate and academic education, by granting a large gratuity to the college and academies in this State, which, in addition to their former funds, renders their endowments handſome, and adequate to their expenditures.

King's College, in the city of New York, was principally founded by the voluntary contributions of the inhabitants of the province, aſſiſted by the General Aſſembly, and the corporation of Trinity Church; in the year 1754, a royal charter (and grant of money) being then obtained, incorporating a number of gentlemen therein mentioned, by the name of "The governors of the college of the province of New York, in the city of New York, in America;" and granting to them and their ſucceſſors for ever, amongſt various other rights and privileges, the power of conferring all ſuch degrees as are uſually conferred by either of the Engliſh Univerſities.

By the charter it was provided that the preſident ſhall always be a member of the church of England, and that a form of prayer collected from the liturgy of that church, with a particular prayer for the college, ſhall be daily uſed, morning and evening, in the college chapel; at the ſame time, no teſt of their religious perſuaſion was required from any of the fellows, profeſſors, or tutors; and the advantages of education were equally extended to ſtudents of all denominations.

The building (which is only one third of the intended ſtructure) conſiſts of an elegant ſtone edifice, three complete ſtories high, with four ſtair-caſes, twelve apartments in each, a chapel, hall, library, muſeum, anatomical theatre, and a ſchool for experimental philoſophy.

The college is ſituated on a dry gravelly ſoil, about 150 yards from the bank of Hudſon's river, which it overlooks; commanding a moſt extenſive and beautiful proſpect.

Since the revolution, the legiſlature paſſed an act conſtituting 21 gentlemen (of whom the Governor and Lieutenant-governor for the time being are members *ex officiis)* a body corporate and politic, by the name of "The regents of the univerſity of the State of New York." They are entruſted with the care of literature in general in the State, and have power to grant charters of incorporation for erecting

colleges and academies throughout the ſtate, are to viſit theſe inſtitutions as often as they ſhall think proper, and report their ſtate to the legiſlature once a year.

King's College, which we have already deſcribed, is now called COLUMBIA COLLEGE. This college, by an act of the legiſlature paſſed in the ſpring of 1787, was put under the care of 24 Gentlemen, who are a body corporate, by the name and ſtyle of "The Truſtees of Columbia College in the city of New York." This body poſſeſs all the powers veſted in the governors of King's college before the revolution, or in the regents of the univerſity ſince the revolution, ſo far as their power reſpected this inſtitution. No regent can be a truſtee of any particular college or academy in the State. The regents of the univerſity have power to confer the higher degrees, and them only.

The college edifice has received no additions ſince the peace. The funds, excluſive of the liberal grant of the legiſlature, amount to between twelve and thirteen thouſand pounds currency, the income of which is ſufficient for preſent exigencies.

This college is now in a thriving ſtate, and has about 100 ſtudents in the four claſſes, beſides medical ſtudents. The officers of inſtruction and immediate government are a preſident, profeſſor of mathematics and natural philoſophy, a profeſſor of logic and geography, and a profeſſor of languages. A complete medical ſchool has been lately annexed to the college, and able profeſſors appointed by the truſtees in every branch of that important ſcience, who regularly teach their reſpective branches with reputation. The number of medical ſtudents is about 50, and increaſing. The library and muſeum were deſtroyed during the war. The philoſophical apparatus is new and complete.

Of the eight incorporated academies, one is at Flatbuſh in King's county, on Long Iſland, four miles from Brooklyn-ferry. It is ſituated in a pleaſant, healthy village. The building is large, handſome, and convenient, and is called *Eraſmus Hall*. The academy is flouriſhing under the care of a principal and other ſubordinate inſtructors.

There is another at Eaſt Hampton, on the eaſt end of Long Iſland, by the name of CLINTON ACADEMY. The others are in different parts of the State. Beſides theſe there are ſchools eſtabliſhed and maintained by the voluntary contributions of the parents. A ſpirit for literary improvement is evidently diffuſing its influence throughout the State.

RELIGION.] The conſtitution of this State provides for "the free exerciſe and enjoyment of religious profeſſion and worſhip, without diſcrimination or preference within the State, for all mankind. Provided that the liberty of conſcience hereby granted, ſhall not be ſo conſtrued as to excuſe acts of licentiouſneſs, or juſtify practices inconſiſtent with the peace and ſafety of the State."

The various religious denominations in this State are the following; Engliſh Preſbyterians, Dutch reformed, Baptiſts, Epiſcopalians, Friends or Quakers, German Lutherans, Moravians, Methodiſts, Roman Catholics, Jews, Shakers, and a few of the followers of Jemima Wilkinſon. The Shakers are principally ſettled at New Lebanon, and the followers of Jemima Wilkinſon at Geneva, about twelve miles S. W. of the Cayoga Lake. For the peculiar ſentiments of theſe various religious ſects ſee the general Account of the United States, under the article Religion.

In April 1784 the legiſlature of this State paſſed an act enabling all religious denominations to appoint truſtees, not leſs than three or more than nine, who ſhall

be a body corporate, for the purpoſe of taking care of the temporalities of their reſpective congregations, and for the other purpoſes therein mentioned.

The miniſters of every denomination in the State are ſupported by the voluntary contributions of the people, raiſed generally by ſubſcription, or by a tax upon the pews; except the Dutch churches in New York, Skenectady, and Kingſton, which have, except the two laſt, large eſtates confirmed by charter. The Epiſcopal church alſo in New York poſſeſſes a very large eſtate in and near the city.

CONSTITUTION AND COURTS OF JUSTICE.] The preſent conſtitution of the State was eſtabliſhed by convention authorized for the purpoſe, April 20th, 1777.

The ſupreme legiſlative powers of the State are veſted in two branches, a *Senate* and *Aſſembly*. The members of the ſenate are elected by the freeholders of the State, who poſſeſs freehold eſtates to the value of 100l. clear of debts. For the purpoſe of electing ſenators, the State is divided into four great diſtricts, each of which chooſes a certain number, viz.

Southern diſtrict, including the counties of { New York, Suffolk, Weſt Cheſter, King's, Queen's, Richmond, } Nine Senators.

Middle Diſtrict { Dutcheſs, Ulſter, Orange, } Six.

Weſtern Diſtrict { Albany, Montgomery, } Six.

Eaſtern Diſtrict { Waſhington, *Cumberland*, *Glouceſter*, } Three.

The ſenators are divided by lot into four claſſes, ſix in each claſs, and numbered, firſt, ſecond, third, and fourth. The ſeats of the firſt claſs are vacated at the expiration of one year; the ſecond, at the expiration of the next, &c. and their places filled by new elections. Thus a ſmall change is made in the ſenate every year; but three fourths of the members remaining preſerve a knowledge of the buſineſs of a former ſeſſion. A majority of the ſenate is neceſſary to do buſineſs, and each branch of the legiſlature has a negative upon the other.

The legiſlature can at any time alter this diviſion of the State for the choice of ſenators; and an increaſe of electors in any diſtrict, to the amount of one twenty-fourth of the electors in the whole State, entitles the diſtrict to another ſenator. But the number of ſenators can never exceed one hundred.

The aſſembly of the State is compoſed of repreſentatives from the ſeveral counties, choſen annually in May in the following proportion:

For the city and county of New York, nine.
For the city and county of Albany, ſeven.

For Dutcheſs,	-	7	For Richmond,	-	2
Weſt Cheſter,	-	6	Montgomery,		6
Ulſter,	-	6	Waſhington, and Clinton,		4
Suffolk,	-	5	Columbia,	-	3
Queen's,	-	4	*Cumberland*,	-	3
Orange,	-	4	*Glouceſter*,	-	2
King's,	-	2			

By

By the conſtitution, however, it is ordered, that at the end of ſeven years after the termination of the late war, a cenſus of the electors and inhabitants ſhall be taken, and the repreſentation apportioned according to the number of electors in each county.

Every male inhabitant of full age, who has reſided in the State ſix months preceding the day of election, and poſſeſſing a freehold to the value of twenty pounds in the county where he is to give his vote, or has rented a tenement therein of the yearly value of forty ſhillings, and has been rated and actually paid taxes, is entitled to vote for repreſentatives in Aſſembly. The freedom of the cities of New York and Albany likewiſe entitles a perſon to the privilege of voting for members of Aſſembly in the city or county where he reſides. The method of voting is now by ballot, but ſubject to alteration by the legiſlature. The houſe of Aſſembly, a majority of which is neceſſary to proceed to buſineſs, chooſes its own ſpeaker, and is a judge of its own privileges.

In all debates on great queſtions, the houſe reſolves itſelf into a committee of the whole; the ſpeaker leaves the chair, and a chairman is appointed for the occaſion. After the buſineſs is completed, the committee riſes, the ſpeaker takes the chair, and the chairman reports to the houſe the proceedings of the committee. How far this imitation of the Britiſh Houſe of Commons is ſupported by good reaſons it may not be eaſy to determine. Certain it is, that in other legiſlatures, the proceedings are equally well conducted without this formality.

The number of repreſentatives is limited to three hundred. The preſent number is ſixty-five.

The ſupreme executive power of the State is veſted in a governor, (in whoſe abſence a deputy-governor is appointed to ſerve) choſen once in three years by the freemen of the State; the lieutenant-governor is, by his office, preſident of the ſenate; and, upon an equal diviſion of voices, has a caſting vote; but has no voice on other occaſions. The governor has not a ſeat in the legiſlature; but as a member of the council of reviſion and council of appointment, he has a vaſt influence in the State.

The council of reviſion is compoſed of the chancellor, the judges of the ſupreme court, or any of them, and the governor. This council is empowered to reviſe all bills which have paſſed the two houſes of the legiſlature, and if it ſhall appear to the council that ſuch bills ought not to paſs into laws, they ſhall be returned to the houſe in which they originated, with the objections of the council in writing. The houſe ſhall then proceed to reconſider the bills, with the objections, and if notwithſtanding, two thirds of the houſe ſhall agree to the bills, they ſhall be ſent to the other houſe, where they ſhall be reconſidered and the aſſent of two thirds of the members paſs them into laws. But if a bill is not returned in ten days, it becomes a law of courſe.

The ſubordinate officers of ſtate are appointed by the *council of appointment*, which is compoſed of one ſenator from each diſtrict, to be choſen annually by the legiſlature, with the governor, or in his abſence, the lieutenant-governor or the preſident of the ſenate, who has a caſting vote only.

All military officers hold their commiſſions during pleaſure. The chancellor, the judges of the ſupreme court, and the firſt judge of each county court, hold their offices during good behaviour. Theſe officers can hold no other office at the ſame time, except that of delegate to Congreſs.

Sheriffs and coroners are appointed annually, and can ſerve but four years ſucceſſively.

A court of errors and impeachment is inſtituted, compoſed of the preſident of the ſenate, the ſenate, chancellor and judges of the ſupreme court, or the major part of them,

them, under the regulation of the legiſlature. The power of impeachment is veſted in the Houſe of Repreſentatives, and the members on trial muſt be ſworn.

Beſides the court of errors and impeachment, there is, firſt, a *court of chancery*, conſiſting of a chancellor appointed by the council of appointment, who holds his office during good behaviour, or until he arrive at the age of ſixty years. Secondly, a *ſupreme court*, the judges of which are appointed in the ſame manner and for the ſame time as the chancellor. This is a circuit court. Thirdly, *county courts*, held in each county, the judges of which are appointed in the manner above mentioned, and the firſt judge holds his office during good behaviour, or until he arrive at the age of ſixty years. Beſides theſe, there are the juſtices' courts, court of probates, court of admiralty, court of exchequer, a court of oyer and terminer and general gaol delivery, and court of quarter ſeſſions.

The practice in the ſupreme court, to which an appeal lies from the courts below, is in imitation of the courts of common pleas and king's bench in England.

All free governments abound with lawyers. Where men have the privilege of thinking and acting for themſelves, they will involve themſelves in debt and quarrel with their neighbours. In proportion to the debts and diſputes of the people, lawyers will multiply. Of theſe America furniſhes a plentiful growth, and New York has its ſhare, as it contains not leſs than 120 licenſed attornies. In this State, the practice of law is conformed to the Engliſh mode, and is perhaps better regulated than in the other States. The ſeveral degrees in the profeſſion, the number of critical examinations that candidates are obliged to paſs through before they can be admitted as counſellors in the higher courts, together with the time of ſtudy required by the rules of admiſſion, render an acceſs to the firſt honors of the bar ſo difficult as to preclude ignorant pretenders to the important ſcience of law. New York can boaſt of many eminent characters in all the learned profeſſions, and has furniſhed America with ſome of her moſt able legiſlators. It is, however, to be feared that a too rigid adherence to the forms of legal proceſs in England has ſometimes perplexed the road to juſtice, and prevented valuable improvements in the practice, not only of this but of moſt of the other States.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] By official returns of the militia of this State, made to the governor by the adjutant-general, it appears that the total number in 1789, was 42,679; 1790—44,259; 1791—50,399. Beſides theſe there are as many as 5000 or 6000 of the militia in the new ſettlements, who are not yet organized.

FORTS, &c.] Theſe are principally in ruins. The demolition of the fort in the city of New York has been mentioned. Remains of the fortifications on Long Iſland, York Iſland, White Plains, Weſt Point, and other places, are ſtill viſible. Fort Stanwix, built by the Britiſh in 1758, at the expenſe, it is ſaid, of 60,000l. is 107 miles weſtward of Skeneƈtady, on an artificial eminence bordering on the Mohawk river, and in travelling this diſtance, you paſs Fort Hunter, Fort Anthony, Fort Plain, Fort Herkemer, and Fort Schuyler. As you proceed weſtward of Fort Stanwix, you paſs Fort Bull, and Fort Breweton, at the weſt end of Oneida Lake. Fort George is at the ſouth end of Lake George. At the point where Lake George communicates with Lake Champlain is the famous poſt of Ticonderoga, by which word the Canadians underſtand *noiſy*. The works at this place are in ſuch a ſtate of dilapidation, that a ſtranger can ſcarcely form an idea of their conſtruƈtion. They are, however, ſituated on ſuch high ground as to command the communication between the lakes George and Champlain. Oppoſite, on the ſouth ſide of the water that empties out of Lake George, is a mountain, to appearance inacceſſible, called Mount Defiance, where General Burgoyne in

in the late war, with a boldneſs, ſecrecy, and diſpatch almoſt unparalleled, conveyed a number of cannon, ſtores, and troops. The cannon were raiſed by large braſs tackles from tree to tree, and from rock to rock, over dens of rattle-ſnakes, to the ſummit, which entirely commands the works of Ticonderoga. This circumſtance muſt ever be conſidered as a full juſtification of General Sinclair's ſudden retreat with the American army, and the obſervation which he made on his trial, in his own defence, that, "though he had loſt a poſt, he had ſaved a State," was afterwards verified.

Crown Point is fifteen miles north of Ticonderoga on Lake Champlain. The fort at this place, in which a Britiſh garriſon was always kept, from the reduction of Canada till the American Revolution, was the moſt regular, and the moſt expenſive of any ever conſtructed, and ſupported by the Britiſh government in North America. The walls are of wood and earth, about ſixteen feet high, and twenty feet thick, and nearly 150 yards ſquare; ſurrounded by a deep and broad ditch cut through a ſolid rock. It ſtands on a riſing ground perhaps 200 yards from the lake, with which there was a covered way, by which the garriſon could be ſupplied with water in time of a ſiege. The only gate opens on the north towards the lake, where there was a draw-bridge. On the right and left, as you enter the fort, are a row of ſtone barracks, not inelegantly built, ſufficient to contain 1500 or 2000 troops; the parade is between them, and is a flat ſmooth rock. There were ſeveral outworks, which are now in ruins, as is the principal fort, except the walls, and the walls of the barracks, which ſtill remain.

BANKS.] There are two or three incorporated Banks in the city of New York, beſides a branch of the national bank, and one has lately been eſtabliſhed in the city of Albany.

MODE OF RAISING INTERNAL TAXES.] The legiſlature fix upon the ſum to be raiſed, and apportion it among the ſeveral counties. This being done the ſupervisors, one from each townſhip in the reſpective counties, aſſemble and aſſign to each townſhip its proportion of the quota of the county. The ſupervisor and aſſeſſors in each townſhip then apportion their quota among the individuals of the townſhip, according to the value of their real and perſonal eſtates. The tax, thus laid, is collected by the collector of the townſhip, and lodged with the county treaſurer, who tranſmits it to the treaſurer of the State.

FINANCES.] A variety of circumſtances have conſpired to fill the treaſury of this State, and wholly to ſuperſede the neceſſity of taxation for ſeveral years paſt; *firſt*, confiſcations and economical management of that property; *ſecond*, ſales of unappropriated lands; and *third*, a duty on imports previous to the eſtabliſhment of the federal government. The two former were ſold for continental certificates, at a time when the credit of the State was perhaps above the par of the Union, which was the cauſe of getting a large ſum of the public debt into the treaſury of the State at a depreciated value. Theſe certificates, ſince the funding ſyſtem came into operation, added to the aſſumed State debt, a vaſt quantity of which was alſo in the treaſury, forms an enormous maſs of property, yielding an annuity of upwards of 100,000 dollars; and when the deferred debt ſhall become a ſix per cent. ſtock, this annuity will be increaſed to upwards of 200,000 dollars.

The ability of the State, therefore, is abundantly competent to aid public inſtitutions of every kind, to make roads, erect bridges, open canals, and to puſh every kind of improvement to the moſt deſirable length. It could be wiſhed, that thoſe citizens who were exiled during the war, and whoſe property was expoſed during its continuance to wanton depredations, could be thought of by a legiſlature poſſeſſing ſo fully the means

of diſcriminating this unhappy claſs of ſufferers, and making them compenſation for their voluntary ſacrifices.

CURIOSITIES.] In the county of Montgomery is a ſmall, rapid ſtream, emptying into Scroon Lake, weſt of Lake George: it runs under a hill, the baſe of which is 60 or 70 yards diameter, forming a moſt curious and beautiful arch in the rock, as white as ſnow. The fury of the water and the roughneſs of the bottom, added to the terrific noiſe within, has hitherto prevented any perſon from paſſing through the chaſm.

In the townſhip of Willſborough, in Clinton county, is a curious Split Rock. A point of a mountain, which projected about 50 yards into Lake Champlain, appears to have been broken by ſome violent ſhock of nature. It is removed from the main rock or mountain about twenty feet, and the oppoſite ſides ſo exactly ſuit each other, that one needs no other proof of their having been once united. The point broken off contains about half an acre, and is covered with wood. The height of the rock on each ſide of the fiſſure is about twelve feet. Round this point is a ſpacious bay, ſheltered from the ſouth-weſt and north-weſt winds by the ſurrounding hills and woods. On the weſt ſide are four or five finely cultivated farms, which altogether, at certain ſeaſons, and in certain ſituations, form one of the moſt beautiful landſcapes imaginable. "Sailing under this coaſt for ſeveral miles before you come to Split Rock, the mountains, rude and barren, ſeem to hang over the paſſenger and threaten deſtruction. —A water, boundleſs to the ſight, lies before him; man feels his own littleneſs, and infidelity itſelf pays an unwilling homage to the Creator. Inſtantly and unexpectedly the ſcene changes, and peeping with greedy eye through the fiſſure, nature preſents to the view a ſilver baſon, a verdant lawn, a humble cottage, a golden harveſt, a majeſtic foreſt, a lofty mountain, an azure ſky, riſing one above another "in juſt gradation to the amazing whole."*

"A few months ago a very extraordinary cavern, at a place called by the Indians, Sepaſcot, on the eſtate of the Miſs Rutſens, at Ryhnbeck, in Dutcheſs county, was diſcovered. A lad, by chance, paſſing near its entrance, which lay between two huge rocks on the declivity of a ſteep hill, on prying into the gloomy receſs, ſaw the top of a ladder, by which he deſcended about ten feet, and found himſelf in a ſubterraneous apartment, more capacious than he then choſe to inveſtigate. He found, however, that it had been the abode of perſons, who probably during the war not daring to be ſeen openly, had taken ſhelter there, as bits of cloth and pieces of leather were ſcattered about its floor. He then left the place, and little more was thought of it, until three weeks ago, the writer of this account made one of a large party, who went from the ſeat of a gentleman in the neighbourhood on purpoſe to examine it. We found its entrance much ſmaller than we expected, and with ſome difficulty gained the ladder, by means of which the remaining deſcent was made tolerably eaſy. Two young ladies were with us, who had heroiſm enough to make the trophimium tour with us. We had ſix candles to ſcrutinize the receſſes of the apartment, where, perhaps, light, for upwards of five thouſand years before, had never gleamed. We found the cave divided by a narrow paſſage into two diviſions; the firſt being about ſeventeen feet in length, and ſo low that a child of eight years old could but juſt walk upright in it; the breadth is about eight or ten feet. The ſecond between twelve and fourteen feet in length, but much higher and broader than the firſt. In this laſt room we found that three bats had taken up their winter quarters, and hung ſuſpended from the roof, as it

* Mr. M. L. Woolſey of Plattſburgh. To this ingenious gentleman, the author is indebted for much valuable information concerning Clinton county.

were, by the very tips of the wings. But what makes the cave peculiarly worthy of notice is the petrifying quality of the water, that by a gentle oozing, continually drops from every part of the ceiling, the whole of which exactly reſembles a mill gutter in a froſty morning, with a thouſand icicles impending. Theſe concretions are formed by the water, and probably are conſtantly increaſing. They have in almoſt every reſpect the appearance of icicles, and may be broken off by the hand if not more than two inches in circumference. They appear of a conſiſtence much like indurated lime, almoſt tranſparent, and are all perforated quite through the whole length, with a hole of the ſize of that in a tobacco pipe, through which aperture the water unremittedly drops, although very ſlow. When a perſon is in the remoteſt room, and the lights are removed into the firſt, thoſe pendant drops of water make an appearance more ſplendid than can well be imagined. Some of thoſe ſtony icicles have at length reached the bottom of the cave, and now form pillars, ſome of more than two feet in girth, of the appearance of marble, and almoſt as hard. They put one in mind of Solomon's Jachin and Boaz, imagination very eaſily giving them pedeſtals and chapiters and even wreathen work.

But what we moſt admired, was the ſkeleton of a large ſnake, turned into ſolid ſtone by the petrifying quality of the water before mentioned. It was with ſome difficulty torn up with an axe from the rock it lay upon (ſome of which adhered to it) and is now in the poſſeſſion of the relater.

We found the inmoſt receſſes of this cavern very warm, and experienced the want of free air by a difficult reſpiration, although the candles burnt very clear."*

INDIANS.] The body of the Six Nations inhabit the weſtern parts of this State. The principal part of the Mohawk tribe reſide on Grand river, in Upper Canada; and there are two villages of Senecas on the Allegany river, near the north line of Pennſylvania, and a few Delawares and Skawaghkees, on Buffaloe Creek. Including theſe, and the Stockbridge and Mohegan Indians, who have migrated and ſettled in the vicinity of Oneida, there are, in the Six Nations, according to an accurate eſtimate lately made by the Rev. Mr. Kirkland, miſſionary among them, 6330 ſouls. He adds, that among theſe there is comparatively but very few children.

The following extract of a letter from Mr. Kirkland to the author will give the reader an idea of the characters, which, according to Indian tradition, are excluded from the happy country: "The region of Pure Spirits, the Five Nations call *Eſkanane*. The only characters which, according to their traditions, cannot be admitted to participate of the pleaſures and delights of this happy country, are reduced to three, viz. ſuicides; the diſobedient to the counſels of the chiefs; and ſuch as put away their wives on account of pregnancy. According to their tradition, there is a gloomy, fathomleſs gulph, near the borders of the delightful manſions of Eſkanane, over which all good and brave ſpirits paſs with ſafety, under the conduct of a faithful and ſkilful guide appointed for that purpoſe; but when a ſuicide, or any of the above-mentioned characters, approach this gulph, the conductor, who poſſeſſes a moſt penetrating eye, inſtantly diſcovers their ſpiritual features and character, and denies them his aid, aſſigning his reaſons. They will, however, attempt to croſs upon a ſmall pole, which, before they reach the middle, trembles and ſhakes, till preſently down they fall with horrid ſhrieks. In this dark and dreary gulph, they ſuppoſe reſides a great dog, ſome ſay a dragon, infected with the itch, which makes him perpetually reſtleſs and ſpiteful. The guilty inhabitants of this miſerable region, all catch this diſeaſe of the great dog, and grope and roam from ſide to ſide of their gloomy manſion in perpetual torments. Sometimes

* Maſſachuſetts Magazine for November, 1792.

Sometimes they approach ſo near the happy fields of Eſkanane, that they can hear the ſongs and dances of their former companions. This only ſerves to increaſe their torments, as they can diſcern no light, nor diſcover any paſſage by which they can gain acceſs to them. They ſuppoſe ideots and dogs go into the ſame gulph, but have a more comfortable apartment, where they enjoy ſome little light." Mr. Kirkland adds, that ſeveral other nations of Indians with whom he has converſed on the ſubject, have nearly the ſame traditionary notions of a future ſtate. They almoſt univerſally agree in this, that the departed ſpirit is ten days in its paſſage to their happy elyſium, after it leaves the body; ſome of them ſuppoſe its courſe is towards the ſouth; others that it aſcends from ſome lofty mountain.

The *Oneidas* inhabit on Oneida creek, twenty-one miles weſt of Fort Stanwix.

The *Tuſcaroras* migrated from North Carolina and the frontiers of Virginia, and were adopted by the Oneidas, with whom they have ever ſince lived. They were originally of the ſame nation.

The *Senecas* inhabit on the Cheneſſee river, at the Cheneſſee caſtle. They have two towns of ſixty or ſeventy ſouls each, on French Creek, in Pennſylvania; and another town on Buffaloe Creek, attached to the Britiſh; two ſmall towns on Allegany river, attached to the Americans. Obeil or Cornplanter, one of the Seneca chiefs, reſided here.

The *Mohawks* were acknowledged by the other tribes, to uſe their own expreſſion, to be "the true old heads of the confederacy;" and were, formerly, a powerful tribe, inhabiting on the Mohawk river. As they were ſtrongly attached to the Johnſon family on account of Sir William Johnſon, they emigrated to Canada, with Sir John Johnſon, about the year 1776. There is now only one family of them in the State, and they live about a mile from Fort Hunter. The father of this family was drowned in the winter of 1788.

All the confederated tribes, except the Oneidas and Tuſcaroras, ſided with the Britiſh in the late war, and fought againſt the Americans.

The *Onondagas* live near the Onondaga lake, about twenty-five miles from the Oneida lake. In the ſpring of 1779, a regiment of men were ſent from Albany, by General J. Clinton, againſt the Onondagas. This regiment ſurprized their town, took thirty-three priſoners, killed twelve or fourteen, and returned without the loſs of a man. A party of the Indians were at this time ravaging the American frontiers.

There are very few of the *Delaware* tribe in this State.

The Five Confederated Nations were ſettled along the banks of the Suſquehannah, and in the adjacent country, until the year 1779, when General Sullivan, with an army of 4000 men, drove them from their country to Niagara, but could not bring them to action. They waited, but waited in vain, for the aſſiſtance of the elements, or, as they expreſſed themſelves, for the aſſiſtance of the Great Spirit. Had heavy rains fallen while General Sullivan's army was advanced into their country, perhaps few of his ſoldiers would have eſcaped, and none of their baggage, ammunition, or artillery. This expedition had a good effect. General Sullivan burnt ſeveral of their towns and deſtroyed their proviſions. Since this irruption into their country, their former habitations have been moſtly deſerted, and many of them have gone to Canada.

On the 13th of November, 1787, John Livingſton, Eſq. and four others, obtained of the Six Nations of Indians a leaſe for 999 years, on a yearly rent reſerved of 2000 dollars, of all the country included in the following limits, viz. Beginning at a place commonly known by the name of Canada creek, about ſeven miles weſt of Fort Stanwix, now Fort Shuyler, thence north-eaſtwardly to the line of the province of Quebec;

thence along the ſaid line to the Pennſylvania line; thence eaſt on the ſaid line or Pennſylvania line, to the line of property, ſo called by the State of New York; thence along the ſaid line of property to Canada Creek aforeſaid. And on the 18th of Jan. 1788, the ſame perſons obtained a leaſe of the Oneida Indians for 999 years, on a rent reſerved for the firſt year, of 1200 dollars, and increaſing it at the rate of 100 dollars a year, until it amounts to 1500 dollars, of all the tract of land commonly called the Oneida country, except a reſervation of ſeveral tracts ſpecified in the leaſe. But theſe leaſes having been obtained without the conſent of the legiſlature of the State, the ſenate and aſſembly, in their ſeſſion, March, 1788, reſolved, "That the ſaid leaſes are purchaſes of lands, and therefore, that by the conſtitution of this State, the ſaid leaſes are not binding on the ſaid Indians, and are not valid." Since this a treaty has been concluded with the ſaid Indians, the bargain of the leaſes annulled, and all the country purchaſed of the natives, except a reſervation to the Oneidas, Cayugas, and Onondagas, defined by certain marks and boundaries.

ISLANDS.] There are three iſlands of note belonging to this State, viz. York Iſland, which has already been deſcribed, Long Iſland, and Staten Iſland.

Long Iſland extends 140 miles, and terminates with Montauk point. It is not more than ten miles in breadth on a medium, and is ſeparated from Connecticut by Long Iſland ſound. The iſland is divided into three counties; King's, Queen's, and Suffolk.

King's County lies at the weſt end of Long Iſland, oppoſite New York, and is not above ten miles long, and eight broad. The inhabitants are principally Dutch, and live well. It contains a number of pleaſant villages, of which Flatbuſh, Brooklyn, and Bedford, are the principal.

Queen's County lies next to King's as you proceed eaſtward. It is about thirty miles long and twelve broad. Jamaica, Newtown, Hampſtead, in which is a handſome court houſe, and Oyſterbay, are the principal villages in this county.

Suffolk County is about 100 miles long and ten broad, and comprehends all the eaſtern part of the iſland, and ſeveral little iſlands adjoining; viz. Shelter Iſland, Fiſher's Iſland, Plum Iſland, and the Iſle of White. Its principal towns are Huntington, Southampton, Smithtown, Brook Haven, Eaſt Hampton, in which is the academy, Southhold, and Bridge Hampton.

The ſouth ſide of the iſland is flat land, of a light ſandy ſoil, bordered on the ſea coaſt with large tracts of ſalt meadow, extending from the weſt point of the iſland to Southampton. This ſoil, however, is well calculated for raiſing grain, eſpecially Indian corn. The north ſide of the iſland is hilly, and of a ſtrong ſoil, adapted to the culture of grain, hay, and fruit. A ridge of hills extends from Jamaica to Southhold. Large herds of cattle feed upon Hampſtead plain, and on the ſalt marſhes upon the ſouth ſide of the iſland.

Hampſtead plain, in Queen's county, is a curioſity. It is ſixteen miles in length, eaſt and weſt, and ſeven or eight miles wide. The ſoil is black, and to appearance rich, and yet it was never known to have any natural growth, but a kind of wild graſs, and a few ſhrubs. It is frequented by vaſt numbers of plover. Rye grows tolerably well on ſome parts of the plain. The moſt of it lies common for cattle, horſes, and ſheep. As there is nothing to impede the proſpect in the whole length of this plain, it has a curious but tireſome effect upon the eye, not unlike that of the ocean.

Eaſt of this plain, on the middle of the iſland, is a barren heath, overgrown with ſhrub oaks and pines, in which it is ſuppoſed there are ſeveral thouſand deer. It is

 frequented

frequented alſo by a great number of growſe, a very delicious bird. Laws have been paſſed for the preſervation of theſe birds and the deer.

It is remarkable that on Montauk point, at the eaſt end of the iſland, there are no flies. Between this point and Eaſt Hampton is a beach, three quarters of a mile wide, in the center of which was found, about fifty years ago, under a ſand hill which was blown up by the wind, the entire ſkeleton of a large whale, nearly half a mile from the water.

There are very few rivers upon the iſland. The largeſt is Peakonock, which riſes about ten miles weſt of a place called River-head, where the court houſe ſtands, and runs eaſterly into a large bay dividing Southhold from Southampton. In this bay are Robin and Shelter iſlands.

The ſouth ſide of the iſland is indented with numerous ſtreams of various ſizes, which fall into a large bay, two or three miles over, formed by a beach, about eighty rods wide, which appears like a border to the iſland, extending from the weſt end of it to Southampton. Through this beach, in various places, are inlets of ſuch depth as to admit of veſſels of ſixty or ſeventy tons. This bay was formerly freſh water. Oyſters, clams, and fiſh of various kinds, are caught with eaſe, and in great plenty in this bay, with ſeines, during the winter ſeaſon. It is not uncommon to ſee forty or fifty veſſels here loading with oyſters at the ſame time. And what is almoſt incredible, though I was told of it by two gentlemen of truth, and who were well informed as to the matter, thirty waggon loads of baſs have been caught in this bay at one draught.

Rockonkama pond lies about the center of the iſland, between Smithtown and Iſlip, and is about a mile in circumference. This pond has been found by obſervation, to riſe gradually for ſeveral years, until it had arrived to a certain height, and then to fall more rapidly to its loweſt bed; and thus it is continually ebbing and flowing. The cauſe of this curious phenomenon has never been inveſtigated. Two miles to the ſouthward of this pond is a conſiderable ſtream, called Connecticut river, which empties into the bay.

There are two whale fiſheries; one from Sagg harbour, which produces about 1000 barrels of oil annually; the other is much ſmaller, and is carried on by the inhabitants in the winter ſeaſon, from the ſouth ſide of the iſland. They commonly catch from three to ſeven whales in a ſeaſon, which produce from twenty-five to forty barrels each of oil. This fiſhery was formerly a ſource of conſiderable wealth to the inhabitants, but through a ſcarcity of whales, it has greatly declined of late years.

There is a conſiderable trade carried on from Sagg harbour, whence is exported to the Weſt Indies, and other places, whale oil, pitch-pine boards, horſes, cattle, flax-ſeed, beef, &c. The produce of the middle and weſtern parts of the iſland is carried to New York. The iſland contains 36,949 inhabitants.

Staten Iſland lies nine miles ſouth-weſt of the city of New York, and forms Richmond county. It is about eighteen miles in length, and, at a medium, ſix or ſeven in breadth, and contains 3,835 inhabitants. On the ſouth ſide is a conſiderable tract of level, good land; but the iſland in general is rough, and the hills high. Richmond is the only town of any note on the iſland, and that is a poor, inconſiderable place. The inhabitants are principally deſcendants of the Dutch and French.

HISTORY.] See Smith's Hiſtory of New York, publiſhed by Matthew Carey, and Hazard's Collection of State Papers.

In 1787, the legiſlature of this State ceded to the commonwealth of Maſſachuſetts, all the lands within their juriſdiction, weſt of a meridian that ſhall be drawn from a point

point in the north boundary line of Pennſylvania, eighty-two miles weſt from the Delaware; (excepting one mile along the eaſt ſide of Niagara river) and alſo ten townſhips between the Chenengo and Owegy rivers, reſerving the juriſdiction to the State of New York. This ceſſion was made to ſatisfy a claim of Maſſachuſetts founded upon their original charter.

A liſt of GOVERNORS *from the year* 1664 *to the preſent time.*

Names.	Began to govern.	Names.	Began to govern.
Nicolls	1664	Burnet	1720
Lovelace	1668	Montgomerie	1728
Androſs	1674	Vandam	1731
Brockhuſt	1682	Croſby	1732
Dongan	1683	Clarke	1735
Slaughter	1690	Clinton	1743
Ingoldſby	1691	Oſborn	1753
Fletcher	1692	De Lancey	1753
Bellemont	1698	Sir Charles Hardy	1755
Nanfan	1699	De Lancey	1757
Bellemont	1700	Colden (Preſident)	1760
Depeyſter	1700	Monckton	1761
Smith	1700	Colden	1761
Nanfan	1701	Monckton	1762
Cornbury	1702	Colden	1763
Lovelace	1708	Sir Henry Moore	1765
Schuyler	1709	Colden	1769
Ingoldſby	1709	Dunmore	1770
Beekman	1710	Tryon	1771
Hunter	1710	Clinton	1778

NEW JERSEY.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.

Length 160, Breadth 52 } between { 39° and 41° 24′ North Latitude. The body of the State lies between the meridian of Philadelphia, and 1° Eaſt Longitude.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED eaſt, by Hudſon's river and the ſea; ſouth, by the ſea; weſt, by Delaware bay and river, which divide it from the States of Delaware and Pennſylvania; north, by a line drawn from the mouth of Mahakkamak river, in latitude 41° 24′ to a point on Hudſon's river in latitude 41°. Containing about 8320 ſquare miles, equal to 5,324,800 acres.

CIVIL DIVISIONS, POPULATION, &c.] New Jerſey is divided into thirteen counties, which are ſubdivided into ninety-four townſhips or precincts, as follows:

TABLE.

	Counties.	Principal Towns.	Len.	Bred.	Total No. of Inhabitants.	No. Slav.
These ſeven counties lie from S. to N. on Delaware river. Cape May and Glouceſter extend acroſs to the ſea.	Cape May.	None.	30	9	571	141
	Cumberland.	Bridgetown.	50	20	8,248	120
	Salem.	Salem.			10,437	172
	Glouceſter.	Woodbury and Glouceſter.	30	22	13,360	191
	Burlington.	Burlington & Bordentown.	60	30	18,095	227
	Hunterdon.	Trenton.	37	12	20,253	1,301
	Suſſex.	Newtown.			19,500	439
These four counties lie from N. to S. on the Eaſtern ſide of the State.	Bergen.	Hackinſak.			12,601	2,301
	Eſſex.	Newark and Elizabethtown			17,785	1,171
	Middleſex.	Amboy & part of Brunſwick.			15,956	1,318
	Monmouth.	Freehold.	80	30	16,918	1,596
	Somerſet.	Boundbrook & pt. Brunſwick.			12,296	1,810
	Morris.	Morriſtown.	25	20	16,216	603
Total	Thirteen				184,139	11,423

BAYS, PONDS, RIVERS AND CANALS.] New Jerſey is waſhed, on the eaſt and ſouth-eaſt, by Hudſon's river and the ocean; and on the weſt, by the river Delaware.

The moſt remarkable bays are, Arthur Kull, or Newark bay, formed by the union of Paſſaik and Hackinſak rivers. This bay opens to the right and left, and embraces Staten Iſland. There is a long bay formed by a beach, four or five miles from the ſhore, extending along the coaſt north-eaſt and ſouth-weſt, from Manaſquand river, in Monmouth county, almoſt to Cape May. Through this beach are a number of inlets, by which the bay communicates with the ocean.

On the top of a mountain, in Morris county, is a lake or pond, three miles in length, and from a mile to a mile and an half in breadth, from which proceeds a continual ſtream. It is in ſome places deep. The water is of a ſea green colour; but when taken up in a tumbler, is, like the water of the ocean, clear and of a cryſtalline colour.

The rivers in this State, though not large, are numerous. A traveller, in paſſing the common road from New York to Philadelphia, croſſes three conſiderable rivers, viz. the Hackinſak and Paſſaik, between Bergen and Newark, and the Raritan by Brunſwick. The Hackinſak riſes in Bergen county, runs a ſouthwardly courſe, and empties into Newark bay. At the ferry, near its mouth, it is 460 yards wide, and is navigable fifteen miles.

Paſſaik is a very crooked river. It riſes in a large ſwamp in Morris county. Its general courſe is from W. N. W. to E. S. E. until it mingles with the Hackinſak at the head of Newark bay. It is navigable about ten miles, and is 230 yards wide at the ferry. The cataract (or Great Falls) in this river, is one of the greateſt natural curioſities in the State. The river is about forty yards wide, and moves in a ſlow, gentle

current, until coming within a ſhort diſtance of a deep cleft in a rock, which croſſes the channel; it deſcends and falls above ſeventy feet perpendicularly, in one entire ſheet. One end of the cleft, which was evidently made by ſome violent convulſion in nature, is cloſed; at the other, the water ruſhes out with incredible ſwiftneſs, forming an acute angle with its former direction, and is received into a large baſon, whence it takes a winding courſe through the rocks, and ſpreads into a broad ſmooth ſtream. The cleft is from four to twelve feet broad. The falling of the water occaſions a cloud of vapour to ariſe, which by floating amidſt the ſun beams, preſents to the view rainbows, that add beauty to the tremendous ſcene. The new manufacturing town of Patterſon is erected upon the Great Falls in this river. The weſtern bank of the river, between Newark and the Falls, affords one of the pleaſanteſt roads for a party of pleaſure in New Jerſey. The bank being high, gives the traveller an elevated and extenſive view of the oppoſite ſhore, which is low and fertile, forming a landſcape pictureſque and beautiful. Many handſome country ſeats adorn the ſides of this river; and there are elegant ſituations for more. Gentlemen of fortune might here diſplay their taſte to advantage. The fiſh of various kinds with which this river abounds, while they would furniſh the table with an agreeable repaſt, would afford the ſportſman an innocent and manly amuſement.

Raritan river is formed by two conſiderable ſtreams called the north and ſouth branches; one of which has its ſource in Morris, the other in Hunterdon county. It paſſes by Brunſwick and Amboy, and mingles with the waters of the Arthur Kull ſound, and helps to form the fine harbour of Amboy. It is a mile wide at its mouth, two hundred and fifty yards at Brunſwick, and is navigable about ſixteen miles. It is ſuppoſed that this river is capable of a very ſteady lock navigation, as high as the junction of the north and ſouth branches; and thence up the ſouth branch to Grandin's Bridge in Kingwood. Thence to Delaware river is ten or twelve miles. It is ſuppoſed a portage will be here eſtabliſhed by a turnpike road: or the waters of the Raritan, may be united with thoſe of the Delaware, by a canal from the ſouth branch of the Raritan to Muſconetcony river, which empties into the Delaware, or from Capoolong Creek, a water of the Raritan, emptying at Grandin's Bridge, and Neceſſackaway, a water of the Delaware. It is ſuppoſed alſo that an inland navigation from Philadelphia to New York may be effected by proceeding up the Aſanpink, (a water of the Delaware, emptying at Trenton) towards Princeton; and from thence by a canal to the Millſtone, a water of the river to New Brunſwick.

At Raritan hills, through which this river paſſes, is a ſmall caſcade, where the water falls fifteen or twenty feet, very romantically, between two rocks. This river oppoſite to Brunſwick is ſo ſhallow, that it is fordable at low water with horſes and carriages, but a little below it deepens ſo faſt that a twenty gun ſhip may ride ſecurely at any time of tide. The tide, however, riſes ſo high that large ſhallops paſs a mile above the ford; ſo that it is no uncommon thing to ſee veſſels of conſiderable burden riding at anchor, and a number of large river craft lying above, ſome dry, and others on their beam ends for want of water, within gunſhot of each other.

Bridges have lately been erected, and are now nearly or quite completed (agreeably to laws of the State paſſed for that purpoſe) over the Paſſaik, Hackinſak, and Raritan rivers, on the poſt road between New York and Philadelphia. Theſe bridges will greatly facilitate the intercourſe between theſe two great cities.

Beſides theſe are Ceſarea river, or Cohanſey creek, which riſes in Salem county, and is about thirty miles in length, and navigable for veſſels of an hundred tons to Bridgetown, twenty miles from its mouth.

Mulicus

Mulicus river divides the counties of Glouceſter and Burlington, and is navigable twenty miles for veſſels of ſixty tons.

Maurice river riſes in Glouceſter county, runs ſouthwardly about forty miles, and is navigable for veſſels of an hundred tons, fifteen miles, and for ſhallops ten miles farther.

Alloway Creek, in the county of Salem, is navigable ſixteen miles for ſhallops, with ſeveral obſtructions of drawbridges. Ancocus Creek, in Burlington county, is alſo navigable ſixteen miles. Theſe, with many other ſmaller ſtreams, empty into the Delaware, and carry down the produce which their fertile banks and the neighbouring country afford.

That part of the State which borders on the ſea, is indented with a great number of ſmall rivers and creeks, ſuch as Great Egg Harbour, and Little Egg Harbour rivers, Naveſink, Shark, Matticung, and Forked rivers, which, as the country is flat, are navigable for ſmall craft almoſt to their ſources.

Paulin's Kiln, in Suſſex county, is navigable for craft fifteen miles; and the Muſconetcony, which divides Hunterdon from Suſſex, is capable of beneficial improvement, as is the Pequeſt or Pequaſſet, between the two laſt mentioned rivers.

This State is remarkable for mill ſeats, eleven hundred of which are already improved; five hundred with flour mills, and the reſt with ſaw mills, fulling mills, forges, furnaces, ſlitting, and rolling mills, paper, powder, and oil mills.

Sandy Hook, or Point, is in the townſhip of Middletown; and on this point ſtands a light houſe, one hundred feet high, built by the citizens of New York.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, MOUNTAINS, SOIL, AND PRODUCTIONS.] The counties of Suſſex, Morris, and the northern part of Bergen, are mountainous. The *South Mountain*, which is one ridge of the great *Allegany Range*, croſſes this State in about latitude 41°. This mountain emboſoms ſuch amazing quantities of iron ore, that it may not improperly be called the *Iron Mountain*. The Kittatiny ridge paſſes through this State north of the South mountain. Several ſpurs from theſe mountains are projected in a ſouthern direction. One paſſes between Springfield and Chatham; another runs weſt of it, by Morriſtown, Baſkinridge, and Vealtown. The interior country is, in general, agreeably variegated with hills and vallies. The ſouthern counties which lie along the ſea coaſt, are pretty uniformly flat and ſandy. The noted Highlands of Naveſink, and Center hill, are almoſt the only hills within the diſtance of many miles from the ſea coaſt. The Highlands of Naveſink are on the ſea coaſt near Sandy Hook, in the townſhip of Middletown, and are the firſt lands that are diſcovered by mariners, as they come upon the coaſt. They riſe about ſix hundred feet above the ſurface of the water.

As much as five eighths of moſt of the ſouthern counties, or one fourth of the whole State, is almoſt a ſandy barren waſte, unfit in many parts for cultivation. The land on the ſea coaſt in this, like that in the more ſouthern States, has every appearance of *made ground*. The ſoil is generally a light ſand; and by digging, on an average, about fifty feet below the ſurface, (which can be done, even at the diſtance of twenty or thirty miles from the ſea, without any impediment from rocks or ſtones) you come to ſalt marſh. The gentleman who gave this information adds, "I have ſeen an oyſter ſhell that would hold a pint, which was dug out of the marſh, at fifty feet deep, in digging a well." "About ſeven years ſince," continues my informer, "at Long Branch, in the county of Monmouth, in the banks of the Atlantic, which were greatly torn by a great riſe of the ſea in a violent eaſterly ſtorm, was diſcovered the ſkeleton of ſome huge carnivorous animal. The country people who firſt ſaw it had ſo little curioſity, as to ſuffer

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it to be wholly deſtroyed, except a jaw tooth which I ſaw. This was about two and an half inches wide, five inches long, and as many deep. The perſon who helped to take it out of the bank aſſured me, there was one rib ſeven feet four inches, and another four feet long." The bones of another of theſe animals has lately been diſcovered in a meadow, in the county of Glouceſter, on the river Delaware, by a negro, who was digging a ditch, 3 or 4 feet deep. Part of theſe bones were ſent to Philadelphia.—To account for theſe curious phenomena is not my buſineſs; this is left for the ingenious naturaliſt, who has abilities and leiſure to compare facts and appearances of this kind, and who probably may thence draw concluſions which may throw much light on the ancient hiſtory of this country.

This State has all the varieties of ſoil from the worſt to the beſt kind. It has a great proportion of barrens. The good land in the ſouthern counties lies principally on the banks of rivers and creeks. The ſoil on theſe banks is generally a ſtiff clay; and while in a ſtate of nature, produces various ſpecies of oak, hickory, poplar, cheſnut, aſh, gum, &c. The barrens produce little elſe but ſhrub oaks and yellow pines. Theſe ſandy lands yield an immenſe quantity of bog iron ore, which is worked up to great advantage in the iron works in theſe counties. There are large bodies of ſalt meadow along the lower part of the Delaware river and bay, which afford a plentiful paſture for cattle in ſummer, and hay in winter; but the flies and muſketoes frequent theſe meadows in large ſwarms, in the months of June, July, and Auguſt, and prove very troubleſome both to man and beaſt. In Glouceſter and Cumberland counties are ſeveral large tracts of banked meadow. Their vicinity to Philadelphia renders them highly valuable. Along the ſea-coaſt the inhabitants ſubſiſt principally, by feeding cattle on the ſalt meadows, and by the fiſh of various kinds, ſuch as rock, drum, ſhad, perch, &c. black turtle, crabs, and oyſters, which the ſea, rivers, and creeks, afford in great abundance. They raiſe Indian corn, rye, potatoes, &c. but not for exportation. Their ſwamps afford lumber, which is eaſily conveyed to a good market. The ſugar maple tree is common in Suſſex county upon the Delaware.

In the hilly and mountainous parts of the State, which are not too rocky for cultivation, the ſoil is of a ſtronger kind, and covered in its natural ſtate with ſtately oaks, hickories, cheſnuts, &c. and when cultivated produces wheat, rye, Indian corn, buck wheat, oats, barley, flax, and fruits of all kinds common to the climate. The land in this hilly country is good for grazing, and farmers feed great numbers of cattle for New York and Philadelphia markets; and many of them keep large dairies, as there are large tracts of fine meadows between the hills.

The orchards in many parts of the State equal any in the United States, and their cyder is ſaid, and not without reaſon, to be the beſt in the world. It is pretty certain, that it cannot be ſurpaſſed in goodneſs.

The markets of New York and Philadelphia receive a very conſiderable proportion of their ſupplies from the contiguous parts of New Jerſey. And it is worthy of remark, that theſe contiguous parts are exceedingly well calculated, as to the nature and fertility of their ſoils, to afford theſe ſupplies; and the intervention of a great number of navigable rivers and creeks renders it very convenient to market their produce. Theſe ſupplies conſiſt of vegetables of many kinds, apples, pears, peaches, plums, ſtrawberries, cherries, and other fruits; cyder in large quantities, and of the beſt quality, butter, cheeſe, beef, pork, mutton, and the leſſer meats.

TRADE.] The trade of this State is carried on almoſt ſolely with and from thoſe two great commercial cities, New York on one ſide, and Philadelphia on the other; though it wants not good ports of its own. Several attempts have been made by the legiſla-

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ture to ſecure to the State its own natural advantages, by granting extraordinary privileges to merchants who would ſettle at Amboy and Burlington, two very commodious ports. But the people having long been accuſtomed to ſend their produce to the markets of Philadelphia and New York, and of courſe having their correſpondencies eſtabliſhed, and their mode of dealing fixed, they find it difficult to turn their trade from the old channel. Beſides, in theſe large cities, where are ſo many able merchants, and ſo many wants to be ſupplied, credits are more eaſily obtained, and a better and quicker market is found for produce, than could be expected in towns leſs populous and flouriſhing. Theſe and other cauſes of the ſame kind have hitherto rendered abortive the encouragements held out by the legiſlature.

The articles exported, beſides thoſe already mentioned, are wheat, flour, horſes, live cattle, hams, which are celebrated as being among the beſt in the world, lumber, flax-ſeed, leather, iron, in great quantities, in pigs and bars, and formerly copper ore; but the mines have not been worked ſince the commencement of the late war. The imports conſiſt chiefly of Weſt India goods.

MANUFACTURES AND AGRICULTURE.] The manufactures of this State have hitherto been very inconſiderable, not ſufficient to ſupply its own conſumption, if we except the articles of iron, nails, and leather. A ſpirit of induſtry and improvement, particularly in manufactures, has, however, greatly increaſed in the two laſt years. Moſt of the families in the country, and many in the populous towns, are clothed in ſtrong, decent homeſpun; and it is a happy circumſtance for our country, that this plain AMERICAN dreſs is every day growing more faſhionable, not only in this, but in all the States.

In Trenton-Newark and Elizabeth-town, are ſeveral very valuable tan-yards, where leather in large quantities, and of an excellent quality, is made and exported to the neighbouring markets. Steel was manufactured at Trenton in the time of the war, but not conſiderably ſince.

In Glouceſter county is a glaſs-houſe. Paper-mills and nail-manufactories are erected and worked to good advantage in ſeveral parts of the State. Wheat alſo is manufactured into flour, and Indian corn into meal, to good account, in the weſtern counties, where wheat is the ſtaple commodity. But the iron manufacture is of all others the greateſt ſource of wealth to the State. Iron works are erected in Glouceſter, Burlington, Suſſex, Morris, and other counties. The mountains in the county of Morris give riſe to a number of ſtreams neceſſary and convenient for theſe works, and at the ſame time furniſh a copious ſupply of wood and ore of a ſuperior quality. In this county alone are no leſs than ſeven rich iron mines, from which might be taken ore ſufficient to ſupply the United States; and to work it into iron are two furnaces, two rolling and ſlitting mills, and about thirty forges, containing from two to four fires each. Theſe works produce annually about 540 tons of bar iron, 800 tons of pigs, beſides large quantities of hollow ware, ſheet iron, and nail rods. In the whole State, it is ſuppoſed there is yearly made about 1200 tons of bar iron, 1200 ditto of pigs, 80 ditto of nail rods, excluſive of hollow ware, and various other caſtings, of which vaſt quantities are made.

Early in the late war, a powder-mill was erected in Morriſtown by Colonel Ford, who was enabled, by the ample ſupply of ſalt-petre furniſhed by the patriotic inhabitants, to make a conſiderable quantity of that valuable and neceſſary article, at a time when it was moſt needed; and when the enemy were at the door, it afforded a timely ſupply.

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A manufacturing company was incorporated, in 1791, by the legiſlature of this State, and favoured with very great privileges. The better to encourage every kind of manufacture, a ſubſcription was opened, under the patronage of the Secretary of the Treaſury of the United States, for this important purpoſe. Each ſubſcriber promiſed to pay, for every ſhare annexed to his name, 400 dollars to the truſtees appointed to receive it. A ſum of upwards of 500,000 dollars was almoſt immediately ſubſcribed, and the directors of the aſſociation have ſince taken the proper meaſures to carry into effect their extenſive plan. They have fixed on the Great Falls in Paſſaik river, and the ground adjoining, for the erection of the mills, and the town, which they call PATERSON, in honour of the preſent governor of New Jerſey. Every advantage appears to be concentrated in this delightful ſituation, to make it one of the moſt eligible in the United States for the permanent eſtabliſhment of manufactures. Already a large ſum of money has been expended, and the works are in forwardneſs.

Although the bulk of the inhabitants in this State are farmers, yet agriculture has not been improved (a few inſtances excepted) to that degree, which from long experience we might rationally expect, and which the fertility of the ſoil, in many places, ſeems to encourage. A great part of the inhabitants are Dutch, who, although they are in general neat and induſtrious farmers, have very little enterpriſe, and ſeldom adopt any new improvements in huſbandry, becauſe, through habits and want of education to expand and liberaliſe their minds, they think their old modes of tilling the beſt. Indeed, this is the caſe with the great body of the common people, and proves almoſt an inſurmountable obſtacle to agricultural improvements.

MINES AND MINERALS.] This State emboſoms vaſt quantities of iron and copper ore. The iron ore is of two kinds; one is capable of being manufactured into malleable iron, and is found in mountains and in low barrens; the other, called bog ore, grows in rich bottoms; and yields iron of a hard, brittle quality, and is commonly manufactured into hollow ware, and uſed ſometimes inſtead of ſtone in building.

A number of copper-mines have been diſcovered in different parts of the State: one is in Bergen county, which when worked by the Schuylers, (to whom it belonged,) was conſiderably productive; but they have for many years been neglected.

The following account of a copper-mine at New Brunſwick is given by a gentleman of diſtinction, well informed upon the ſubject:

"About the years 1748, 1749, 1750, ſeveral lumps of virgin copper, from five to thirty pounds weight, (in the whole upwards of 200 pounds,) were plowed up in a field belonging to Philip French, Eſq. within a quarter of a mile of New Brunſwick. This induced Mr. Elias Boudinot, of the city of Philadelphia, to take a leaſe of Mr. French, of this land, for ninety-nine years, in order to ſearch for copper ore, a body of which, he concluded, muſt be contained in this hill. He took in ſeveral partners, and about the year 1751, opened a pit in the low grounds, about 200 or 300 yards from the river. He was led to this ſpot by a friend of his, who a little before, paſſing by at three o'clock in the morning, obſerved a body of flame ariſe out of the ground, as large as a common-ſized man, and ſoon after die away. He drove a ſtake on the ſpot. About fifteen feet deep, Mr. Boudinot came on a vein of bluiſh ſtone, about two feet thick, between two perpendicular looſe bodies of red rock, covered with a ſheet of pure virgin copper, a little thicker than gold leaf. This bluiſh ſtone was filled with ſparks of virgin copper, very much like copper-filings, and now and then a large lump of virgin copper, from five to thirty pounds weight. He followed this vein almoſt thirty feet, when, the water coming in very faſt, the expenſe became

too great for the company's capital. A ſtamping-mill was erected, when, by reducing the bluiſh ſtone to a powder, and waſhing it in large tubs, the ſtone was carried off, and the fine copper preſerved, by which means many tons of the pureſt copper were ſent to England without ever paſſing through the fire; but labour was too high to render it poſſible for the company to proceed. Sheets of copper about the thickneſs of two pennies, and three feet ſquare, on an average, have been taken from between the rocks, within four feet of the ſurface, in ſeveral parts of the hill. At about fifty or ſixty feet deep, they came to a body of fine ſolid ore in the midſt of this bluiſh vein, but between rocks of a white flinty ſpar, which, however, was worked out in a few days. Theſe works lie now wholly neglected, although the vein when left was richer than ever it had been. There was alſo a very rich vein of copper ore diſcovered at Rocky Hill, in Somerſet county, which has alſo been neglected from the heavy expenſe attending the working of it. There have been various attempts made to ſearch the hills beyond Boundbrook, known by the name of Van Horne's mountain, but for the ſame reaſon is now neglected. This mountain diſcovers the greateſt appearance of copper ore of any place in the State: it may be picked up on the ſurface of many parts of it. A ſmelting-furnace was erected before the revolution, in the neighbourhood, by two Germans, who were making very conſiderable profit on their work, until the Britiſh deſtroyed it in the beginning of the war. The inhabitants made it worth their while by collecting the ore from the ſurface, and by partially digging into the hill, to ſupply the furnace. Beſides, a company opened a very large ſhaft on the ſide of the hill, from which alſo a great deal of valuable ore and ſome virgin copper were taken. Two lumps of virgin copper were found here in the year 1754, which weighed 1900 pounds."

A lead-mine has been diſcovered in Hopewell townſhip, four miles from Trenton. There is ſaid to be coal on Raritan river, below Brunſwick, and at Pluckemin; and turf in Bethlehem, at the head of its ſouth branch; and alſo at Springfield on Raway river, which is remarkable for mill ſeats.

Curious Springs.] In the upper part of the county of Morris is a cold mineral ſpring, which is frequented by valetudinarians, and its waters have been uſed with very conſiderable ſucceſs. In the townſhip of Hanover, in this county, on a ridge of hills, are a number of wells, which regularly ebb and flow about ſix feet, twice in every twenty-four hours. Theſe wells are nearly forty miles from the ſea in a ſtraight line. In the county of Cape May is a ſpring of freſh water, which boils up from the bottom of a ſalt water creek, which runs nearly dry at low tide; but at flood tide is covered with water directly from the ocean, to the depth of three or four feet; yet in this ſituation, by letting down a bottle, well corked, through the ſalt-water into the ſpring, and immediately drawing the cork with a ſtring prepared for the purpoſe, it may be drawn up full of fine, untainted freſh water. There are ſprings of this kind in other parts of the State. In the county of Hunterdon, near the top of Muſkonetcong mountain, is a noted medicinal ſpring, to which invalids reſort from every quarter. It iſſues from the ſide of a mountain, and is conveyed into an artificial reſervoir for the accommodation of thoſe who wiſh to bathe in, as well as to drink, the waters. It is a ſtrong chalybeate, and very cold. Theſe waters have been uſed with very conſiderable ſucceſs; but perhaps the exerciſe neceſſary to get to them, and the purity of the air in this lofty ſituation, aided by a lively imagination, have as great efficacy in curing the patient as the waters.

A curious ſpring has been diſcovered, about 200 yards from the ſouth branch of Raritan river, from which, even in the dryeſt ſeaſons, a ſmall ſtream iſſues, except when

when the wind continues to blow from the north-weſt for more than two days ſucceſſively, when it ceaſes to run; and if the water be taken out of the caſk placed in the ground, it will remain empty until the wind changes, when it is again filled and flows as uſual.

CAVES, MONUMENTS, &c.] In the townſhip of Shrewſbury, in Monmouth county, on the ſide of a branch of Naveſink river, is a remarkable cave, in which there are three rooms. The cave is about thirty feet long and fifteen feet broad. Each of the rooms are arched; the center of the arch is about five feet from the bottom of the cave; the ſides not more than two and an half. The mouth of the cave is ſmall; the bottom is a looſe ſand; and the arch is formed in a ſoft rock, through the pores of which the moiſture is ſlowly exudated, and falls in drops on the ſand below.

On Sandy Hook, about a mile from the light-houſe, is a monument, which was erected to commemorate a very melancholy event that took place juſt at the cloſe of the late war. The following inſcription, which is upon a marble plate on one ſide of the monument, will afford ſufficient information of the matter:

"Here lies the remains of the honourable Hamilton Douglaſs Halliburton, ſon of Sholto Charles, Earl of Morton, and heir of the ancient family of Halliburton of Pitcurr in Scotland; who periſhed on this coaſt with twelve more young gentlemen, and one common ſailor, in the ſpirited diſcharge of duty, the 30th or 31ſt of December, 1783; born October 10th 1763: a youth who, in contempt of hardſhip and danger, though poſſeſſed of an ample fortune, ſerved ſeven years in the Britiſh navy with a manly courage. He ſeemed to be deſerving of a better fate. To his dear memory, and that of his unfortunate companions, this monumental ſtone is erected by his unhappy mother Katharine, Counteſs Dowager of Morton.

James Champion, Lieutenant of Marines.
Alexander Johnſon, }
George Paddy, } Midſhipmen.
Robert Heywood, }
Charles Gaſcoigne, } Young Gentlemen
Andrew Hamilton, }
William Scott, }
David Reddie, }
William Tomlinſon,
John M'Chair,
William Spray,
Robert Wood,
George Towers, Sailor.

Caſt away in purſuit of deſerters; all found dead, and buried in this grave.

Of his Britannic Majeſty's Ship Aſſiſtance,
Mr. HALLIBURTON, Firſt Lieutenant."

POPULATION.] According to the cenſus of 1790, as given in the Table, there were in this State 184,139 inhabitants, of whom 11,423 were ſlaves. The average population for every ſquare mile is nearly 22. The number of inhabitants in this State was in 1738—47,369, including 3981 ſlaves; in 1745—61,403, including 4606 ſlaves; in 1784—140,435, including 1939 ſlaves. This year there were 10,501 blacks, of which 1939 only were returned as ſlaves.

The average annual increaſe ſince 1738 has been 2630, excluſive of emigrations, which, ſince 1783, have been numerous to the country weſt of the Allegany Mountains. Theſe emigrations will leſſen in proportion as the inhabitants turn their attention to manufactures.

CHARACTER, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] Many circumſtances concur to render theſe various in different parts of the State. The inhabitants are a collection of Low Dutch, Germans, Engliſh, Scotch, Iriſh, and New Englanders, or their deſcendants. National attachment, and mutual convenience, have generally induced theſe ſeveral kinds of people to ſettle together in a body, and in this way their peculiar national manners, cuſtoms, and characters are ſtill preſerved, eſpecially among the poorer claſs of people, who have little intercourſe with any but thoſe of their own nation. Religion, although its tendency is to unite people in thoſe things that are eſſential to happineſs, occaſions wide differences as to manners, cuſtoms, and even character. The Preſbyterian, the Quaker, the Epiſcopalian, the Baptiſt, the German and Low Dutch Calviniſt, the Methodiſt, and the Moravian, have each their diſtinguiſhing characteriſtics, either in their worſhip, their diſcipline, or their dreſs. There is ſtill another characteriſtical difference, diſtinct from either of the others, which ariſes from the intercourſe of the inhabitants with different States. The people in Weſt Jerſey trade to Philadelphia, and of courſe imitate their faſhions and imbibe their manners. The inhabitants of Eaſt Jerſey trade to New York, and regulate their faſhions and manners according to thoſe in New York. So that the difference, in regard to faſhions and manners, between Eaſt and Weſt Jerſey, is nearly as great as between New York and Philadelphia. Add to all theſe the differences common in all countries, ariſing from the various occupations of men, ſuch as the civilian, the divine, the lawyer, the phyſician, the mechanic; the clowniſh, the decent, and the reſpectable farmer, all of whom have different purſuits, or purſue the ſame thing differently, and of courſe muſt have different ideas and manners. When we take into view all theſe differences, (and all theſe differences exiſt in New Jerſey, and many of them in all the other States) it cannot be expected that many general obſervations will apply. It may, however, in truth be ſaid, that the people of New Jerſey are generally induſtrious, frugal, and hoſpitable. There are, comparatively, but few men of learning in the State, nor can it be ſaid, that the people in general have a taſte for the ſciences. The poorer claſs, in which may be included a conſiderable proportion of the inhabitants of the whole State, are inattentive to the education of their children, who are but too generally left to grow up in ignorance. There are, however, a number of gentlemen of the firſt rank in abilities and learning in the civil offices of the State, and in the ſeveral learned profeſſions.

It is not the buſineſs of a geographer to compliment the ladies; nor would we be thought to do it, when we ſay, that there is at leaſt as great a number of induſtrious, diſcreet, amiable, genteel, and handſome women in New Jerſey, in proportion to the number of inhabitants, as in any of the Thirteen States.

RELIGION.] There are in this State, about fifty Preſbyterian congregations, ſubject to the care of three Preſbyteries, viz. That of New York, of New Brunſwick, and Philadelphia. A part of the charge of New York and Philadelphia Preſbyteries lies in New Jerſey, and part in their own reſpective States.

Beſides theſe, there are upwards of forty congregations of Friends, thirty of the Baptiſts, twenty-five of Epiſcopalians, twenty-eight of Dutch Reformed, beſides Methodiſts, and a ſettlement of Moravians.

All theſe religious denominations live together in peace and harmony; and are allowed, by the conſtitution of the State, to worſhip Almighty God agreeably to the dictates of their own conſciences; and are not compelled to attend or ſupport any worſhip contrary to their own faith and judgement. All Proteſtant inhabitants of peaceable behaviour are eligible to the civil offices of the State.

COLLEGES, ACADEMIES, AND SCHOOLS.] There are two colleges in New Jerſey; one at Princetown, called Naſſau Hall; the other at Brunſwick, called Queen's College. The college at Princetown was firſt founded by charter from John Hamilton, Eſq. Preſident of the Council, about the year 1738, and enlarged by Governor Belcher in 1747. The charter delegates a power of granting to "the ſtudents of ſaid college, or to any others thought worthy of them, all ſuch degrees as are granted in either of our Univerſities, or any other college in Great Britain." It has twenty-three truſtees. The governor of the State, and the preſident of the college are, *ex officiis*, two of them. It has an annual income of about 900l. currency; of which 200l. ariſe from funded public ſecurities and lands, and the reſt from the fees of the ſtudents.

The preſident of the college is alſo profeſſor of eloquence, criticiſm, and chronology. The vice-preſident is alſo profeſſor of divinity and moral philoſophy. There is alſo a profeſſor of mathematics and natural philoſophy, and two maſters of languages. The four claſſes in college contain commonly from 70 to 100 ſtudents. There is a grammar-ſchool of about 20 ſcholars, connected with the college, under the ſuperintendance of the preſident, and taught ſometimes by a ſenior ſcholar, and ſometimes by a graduate.

Before the war, this college was furniſhed with a philoſophical apparatus, worth 500l. which (except the elegant Orrery conſtructed by Mr. Rittenhouſe) was almoſt entirely deſtroyed by the Britiſh army in the late war, as was alſo the library, which now conſiſts of between 2000 and 3000 volumes.

The college edifice is handſomely built with ſtone, and is 180 feet in length, 54 in breadth, and four ſtories high; and is divided into 42 convenient chambers for the accommodation of the ſtudents, beſides a dining-hall, chapel, and room for the library. Its ſituation is elevated and exceedingly pleaſant and healthful. It is remarkable, that ſince the removal of the college to Princetown in 1756, there have been but five or ſix deaths among the ſtudents. The view from the college balcony is extenſive and charming.

The college has been under the care of a ſucceſſion of preſidents, eminent for piety and learning; and has furniſhed a number of civilians, divines, and phyſicians of the firſt rank in America.*

The charter for Queen's College, at Brunſwick, was granted juſt before the war, in conſequence of an application from a body of the Dutch church. Its funds, raiſed wholly by free donations, amounted, ſoon after its eſtabliſhment, to 4000l. but they were conſiderably diminiſhed by the war. The grammar-ſchool, which is connected with the college, conſiſts of between thirty and forty ſtudents, under the care of the truſtees. The college at preſent is not in a very flouriſhing ſtate.

There are a number of good academies in this State. One at Freehold, in the county of Monmouth; another at Trenton, in which are about 80 ſtudents in the different branches. It has a fund of about 150l. per annum, ariſing from the intereſt on public ſecurities. Another in Hackkinſak, in the county of Bergen, of upwards of

* Acceſſus. Preſidents. Exitus.

1746	Rev. Jonathan Dickinſon,	1747
1748	Rev. Aaron Burr,	1757
1758	Rev. Jonathan Edwards,	1758
1758	Rev. Samuel Davies,	1760
1761	Rev. Samuel Finley, D. D.	1766
1767	Rev. John Witherſpoon, D. D.	

an hundred ſcholars. Inſtruction and board are ſaid to be cheaper here than in any other part of the State. There is another flouriſhing academy at Orangedale, in the county of Eſſex, conſiſting of nearly as many ſcholars as any of the others, furniſhed with able inſtructors and good accommodations. Another has lately been opened at Elizabethtown, and conſiſts of upwards of twenty ſtudents in the languages, and is increaſing. An academy, by the name of Burlington academy, has lately been eſtabliſhed at Burlington, under the direction of ſeven truſtees, and the inſtruction of two preceptors. The ſyſtem of education adopted in this academy, is deſigned to prepare the ſcholars for the ſtudy of the more difficult claſſics and the higher branches of ſcience in a college or univerſity. At Newark, an academy was founded in June 1792, and promiſes to be a uſeful inſtitution. Beſides theſe, there are grammar ſchools at Springfield, Morriſtown, Bordentown, and Amboy. There are no regular eſtabliſhments for common ſchools in the State. The uſual mode of education is for the inhabitants of a village or neighbourhood to join in affording a temporary ſupport for a ſchoolmaſter, upon ſuch terms as are mutually agreeable. But the encouragement which theſe occaſional teachers meet with, is generally ſuch, as that no perſon of abilities adequate to the buſineſs, will undertake it; and of courſe, little advantage is derived from theſe ſchools. The improvement in theſe common ſchools is generally in proportion to the pay of the teacher. It is therefore much to be regretted that the legiſlature do not take up this ſubject and adopt ſome ſuch method of ſupporting public ſchools as has been practiſed upon with viſible good ſucceſs in ſome of the New England States.

CHIEF TOWNS.] There are a number of towns in this State, nearly of equal ſize and importance, and none that has more than about two hundred houſes compactly built. TRENTON is one of the largeſt towns in New Jerſey and the capital of the State. It is ſituated on the north-eaſt ſide of the river Delaware, oppoſite the falls, nearly in the center of the State, from north to ſouth, in latitude 40° 15′, and about 20′ eaſt of the meridian of Philadelphia. The river is not navigable above theſe falls, except for boats which will carry from five to ſeven hundred buſhels of wheat. This town, with Lamberton, which joins it on the ſouth, contains upwards of two hundred houſes, and about 2000 inhabitants. Here the legiſlature ſtatedly meets, the ſupreme courts ſits, and moſt of the public offices are kept. The inhabitants have lately erected a handſome court houſe 100 feet by 50, with a ſemi-hexagon at each end, over which is to be a balluſtrade. In the neighbourhood of this pleaſant town are ſeveral gentlemen's ſeats, finely ſituated on the banks of the Delaware, and ornamented with taſte and elegance. This town, being a thoroughfare between the eaſtern parts of the State and Philadelphia, has a conſiderable inland trade.

BURLINGTON (city) extends three miles along the Delaware, and one mile back, at right angles, into the county of Burlington, and is twenty miles above Philadelphia by water, and ſeventeen by land. The iſland, which is the moſt populous part of the city, is a mile and a quarter in length, and three quarters of a mile in breadth. It has four entrances over bridges and cauſeways, and a quantity of bank meadow adjoining. On the iſland are about 160 houſes, 1000 white and 100 black inhabitants. But few of the Negroes are ſlaves. The main ſtreets are conveniently ſpacious, and moſtly ornamented with trees in the fronts of the houſes, which are regularly arranged. The Delaware, oppoſite the town, is about a mile wide; and under ſhelter of Mittinnicunk and Burlington Iſlands, affords a ſafe and convenient harbour. It is commodiouſly ſituated for trade, but is too near the opulent city of Philadelphia to admit of any conſiderable increaſe of foreign com-

merce. There are two houſes for public worſhip in the town, one for the Friends or Quakers, who are the moſt numerous, and one for Epiſcopalians. The other public buildings are two market houſes, a court houſe, and the beſt gaol in the State. Beſides theſe, there is an academy already mentioned, a free ſchool, a nail manufactory, and an excellent diſtillery, if that can be called excellent which produces a poiſon both of health and morals.

The city was a free port under the State. The mayor, recorder, and aldermen hold a commercial court, when the matter in controverſy is between foreigners and foreigners, or between foreigners and citizens. The iſland of Burlington was laid out, and the firſt ſettlements made as early as 1677. In 1682, the iſland of Mittinicunk, or Free School Iſland, was given for the uſe of the iſland of Burlington; the yearly profits ariſing from it (which amount to 180l.) are appropriated for the education of poor children.

PERTH AMBOY (city) took its name from James Drummond, Earl of Perth, and Ambo, the Indian word for point, and ſtands on a neck of land included between Raritan river and Arthur Kull ſound. Its ſituation is high and healthy. It lies open to Sandy Hook, and has one of the beſt harbours on the continent. Veſſels from ſea may enter it in one tide in almoſt any weather. Great efforts have been made, and legiſlative encouragements offered, to render it a place of trade, but without ſucceſs. This town was early incorporated with city privileges, and continued to ſend two members to the General Aſſembly until the revolution: until this event, it was the capital of Eaſt Jerſey; and the legiſlature and ſupreme court uſed to ſit here and at Burlington alternately.

BRUNSWICK (city) was incorporated in 1784, and is ſituated on the ſouth-weſt ſide of Raritan river, over which a fine bridge has lately been built, twelve miles above Amboy. It contains about two hundred houſes, and nearly two thouſand inhabitants, one half of whom are Dutch. Its ſituation is low and unpleaſant, being on the bank of a river, and under a high hill which riſes at the back of the town. The ice, at the breaking up of the river in winter, frequently lodges on the ſhallow fording place juſt oppoſite the town, and forms a temporary dam, which occaſions the water to riſe many feet above its uſual height, and ſometimes to overflow the lower floors of thoſe houſes which are not guarded againſt this inconvenience by having their foundations elevated. The ſtreets are raiſed and paved with ſtone. The water in the ſprings and wells is generally bad. The inhabitants are beginning to build on the hill above the town, which is very pleaſant, and commands a pretty proſpect. The citizens have a conſiderable inland trade, and ſeveral ſmall veſſels belonging to the port.

PRINCETOWN is a pleaſant village, of about 80 houſes, 52 miles from New York, and 42 from Philadelphia. Its public buildings are a large college edifice of ſtone, already deſcribed, and a Preſbyterian church built of brick. Its ſituation is remarkably healthy.

ELIZABETHTOWN (borough) is fifteen miles from New York. Its ſituation is pleaſant, and its ſoil equal in fertility to any in the State. In the compact part of the town there are about one hundred and fifty houſes. The public buildings are a very handſome Preſbyterian brick church lately built,* an Epiſcopal church alſo of brick, and an academy. This is one of the oldeſt towns in the State. It was purchaſed of the Indians as early as 1664, and was ſettled ſoon after.

* Their former church, which was very elegant, was burnt in 1780, by a refugee, who was a native, and an inhabitant of Elizabethtown.

NEWARK is ſeven miles from New York. It is a handſome, flouriſhing town, about the ſize of Elizabethtown, and has two Preſbyterian churches, one of which is of ſtone, and is the largeſt and moſt elegant building in the State. Beſides theſe there is an epiſcopal church, a court-houſe and gaol. This town is celebrated for the excellence of its cyder, and is the ſeat of the largeſt ſhoe manufactory in the State: the average number made daily throughout the year, is eſtimated at about 200 pair.

PRACTICE OF PHYSICK.] There is a "Medical Society" in this State, conſiſting of about thirty of their moſt reſpectable phyſicians, who meet twice a year. No perſon is admitted to the practice of phyſic without a licence from the ſupreme court, founded on a certificate from this ſociety, or at leaſt two of its members, teſtifying his ſkill and abilities. It is remarkable that in the county of Cape May, no regular phyſician has ever found ſupport. Medicine has been adminiſtered by women, except in ſome extraordinary caſes.

PRACTICE OF LAW.] No perſon is permitted to practiſe as an attorney in any court without a licence from the governor. This cannot be obtained unleſs the candidate ſhall be above twenty-one years of age, and ſhall have ſerved a regular clerkſhip with ſome licenſed attorney for four years, and have taken a degree in ſome public college, otherwiſe he muſt ſerve five years. This regulation is conſidered by ſome as a depreciation of rights in regard to citizens of other States, and a bar to the progreſs of knowledge. He muſt alſo ſubmit to an examination by three of the moſt eminent counſellors in the State, in the preſence of the judges of the ſupreme court. After three years practice as an attorney, he becomes a candidate for a counſellor's licence, which is granted on a like examination. Many of the people here, however, as in other States, think (becauſe perhaps they are inſtruments in obligng them to pay their debts) that the lawyers know too much. But their knowledge will not injure thoſe who are innocent, and who will let them alone. Experience has verified this obſervation in the county of Cape May. No lawyer lives within ſixty miles of that county, and it is ſeldom that they attend their courts.

CONSTITUTION.] The government of this State, agreeable to their conſtitution, is veſted in a governor, legiſlative council, and general aſſembly. The governor is choſen annually, by the council and aſſembly jointly, and is ſtiled, "Governor and commander in chief in and over the State of New Jerſey, and the territories thereunto beloning, chancellor and ordinary of the ſame." The legiſlative council is compoſed of one member from each county, choſen annually by the people. They muſt be worth one thouſand pounds in real and perſonal eſtate within the county, and have been freeholders and inhabitants of the counties they repreſent for one year. The General Aſſembly is compoſed of three members from each county choſen as above; each of them muſt be worth five hundred pounds, in real and perſonal eſtate within the county, and have been freeholders and inhabitants as above. Each of theſe, on taking his ſeat in the legiſlature, muſt ſwear "that he will not aſſent to any law, vote, or proceeding, which ſhall appear to him injurious to the public welfare of the ſtate, or that ſhall annul or repeal that part of the conſtitution which eſtabliſhes annual elections, nor that part reſpecting trial by jury, nor that which ſecures liberty of conſcience."

The governor ſits in, and preſides over the legiſlative council, and has a caſting vote in their debates. His privy or executive council is compoſed of any three members of the legiſlative council: and the governor and any ſeven members of the council

are

are a court of appeals in the laſt reſort, as to points of law in civil caſes, and poſſeſs a power of pardoning criminals in all caſes whatſoever. The council chuſe one of their members to be vice-preſident, who, when the governor is abſent from the State, poſſeſſes the ſupreme executive power. The council may originate any bills, except preparing and altering any money bill, which is the ſole prerogative of the Aſſembly: in every other reſpect their powers are equal. Every bill is read three times in each houſe. None of the judges of the ſupreme court, or other courts, ſheriffs, or any perſon poſſeſſed of any poſt of profit under the governor, except juſtices of the peace, is entitled to a ſeat in the Aſſembly. The eſtate of a ſuicide is not forfeited for his offence.

Courts of Justice, Laws, &c.] The courts of juſtice in this State are, firſt, *Juſtices Courts.* A competent number of perſons are appointed in each county by the council and aſſembly in joint meeting, who are called juſtices of the peace, and continue in office five years; who, beſides being conſervators of the peace, agreeably to the Engliſh laws, are authorized to hold courts for the trial of cauſes under twelve pounds. From this court, perſons aggrieved may appeal to the quarter ſeſſions.

Secondly, *Courts of Quarter Seſſions of the Peace*, are held quarterly in every county, by at leaſt three of the juſtices. This court takes cognizance of breaches of the peace, and is generally regulated by the rules of the Engliſh law.

Thirdly, *Courts of Common Pleas*, which are held quarterly by judges appointed for that purpoſe, in the ſame manner as the juſtices of the peace, and who are commonly of their number, and hold their commiſſions five years. This court may be held by a ſingle judge, and has cognizance of demands to any amount, and is conſtructed on, and governed by, the principle of the Engliſh laws.

Fourthly, *Supreme Courts*, which are held four times in a year, at Trenton, by three judges appointed for that purpoſe, who hold their offices three years; but one judge only is neceſſary to the holding this court. This court has cognizance of all actions, both civil and criminal, throughout the State, having the united authority of the courts of king's bench, common pleas, and exchequer in England. The courts of oyer and terminer and niſi prius, commonly held once a year in each county, for the trial of cauſes ariſing in the county, and brought to iſſue in the ſupreme court, are properly branches of this court, and are held by one of the judges of it, except that in the courts of oyer and terminer, ſome of the gentlemen of the county are always added in the commiſſion as aſſiſtants to the judge; but they cannot hold the court without him.

Fifthly, *Orphan's Courts*, lately eſtabliſhed by act of Aſſembly, are held by the judges of the court of common pleas, *ex officiis*, and have cognizance of all matters relating to wills, adminiſtration, &c.

Sixthly, *Court of Chancery*, held by the governor *ex officio*, always open. It is a court of law and equity, founded on the ſame principles, and governed by the ſame rules, as the court of chancery in England.

Seventhly, *High Court of Errors and Appeals*, compoſed of the governor, and ſeven of the council, and is a court of appeals in the laſt reſort, in all caſes of law.

All the Engliſh laws which had been practiſed upon in the State, and which are not repugnant to revolution principles, were adopted by the conſtitution, and very few alterations of conſequence have ſince been made, except in the deſcent of the real eſtates, which, inſtead of deſcending to the eldeſt ſon, agreeable to the old feudal ſyſtem, as formerly, are now divided (where there is no will) two ſhares to each ſon,

and one ſhare to each daughter; i. e. the ſons have double the daughter's portions, but all the ſons have equal portions, and all the daughters.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The military ſtrength of New Jerſey conſiſts of a militia, of between 30,000 and 40,000 men.

HISTORY.] See Smith's Hiſtory of New Jerſey—and Hazard's State Papers.

This State was the ſeat of war for ſeveral years, during the conteſt between Great Britain and America. Her loſſes both of men and property, in proportion to the population and wealth of the State, was greater than of any other of the Thirteen States. When General Waſhington was retreating through the Jerſeys, almoſt forſaken by all others, her militia were at all times obedient to his orders; and for a conſiderable length of time, compoſed the ſtrength of his army. There is hardly a town in the State that lay in the progreſs of the Britiſh army, that was not rendered ſignal by ſome enterprize or exploit. At Trenton the enemy received a check, which may be ſaid with juſtice to have turned the tide of war. At Princeton, the ſeat of the muſes, they received another, which, united, obliged them to retire with precipitation, and take refuge in diſgraceful winter quarters. But whatever honour this State might derive from the relation, it is not our buſineſs to give a particular deſcription of battles or ſieges; we leave this to the pen of the hiſtorian, and only obſerve in general, that the many military achievements performed by the Jerſey ſoldiers, give this State one of the firſt ranks among her ſiſters in a military view, and entitle her to a ſhare of praiſe in the accompliſhment of the late glorious revolution that bears no proportion to her ſize.

GOVERNORS *of* NEW JERSEY, *from the ſurrender of the Government by the* PROPRIETORS *in* 1702, *to the preſent time.*

† Edward, Viſcount Cornbury, 1702 to 1708, removed and ſucceeded by
† John, Lord Lovelace, 1708 to 1709, died and the government devolved to
Lt. Gov. Richard Ingoldſby, 1709 to 1710, when came in
† Brigadier Robert Hunter, 1710 to 1720, who reſigned in favour of
† William Burnet, 1720 to 1727, removed and ſucceeded by
† John Montgomery, 1728 to 1731, died and was ſucceeded by
† William Croſby, 1731 to 1736, died and the government devolved to
John Anderſon, *Preſident of the Council*, 1736, by whoſe death about two weeks after the government devolved to
John Hamilton, *Preſident of the Council*, 1736 to 1738

Thoſe marked † were Governors in chief, and down to this time were Governors of New York and New Jerſey, but from 1738 forward, New Jerſey has had a ſeparate governor.

† Lewis Morris, 1738 to 1746, died and the government devolved to
John Hamilton, *Preſident*, 1746 —— by whoſe death it devolved to
John Reading, *Preſident*, 1746 to 1747
† Jonathan Belcher 1747 to 1757, died and the government again devolved to
John Reading, *Preſident*, 1757 to 1758.

Thomas Pownall, then Governor of Maſſachuſetts, being Lieutenant-governor, arrived on the death of Governor Belcher, but continued in the province a few days only.

† Francis

† Francis Bernard, 1758 to 1760, removed to Boſton and ſucceeded by
† Thomas Boone, 1760 to 1761, removed to S. Carolina and ſucceeded by
† Joſiah Hardy, 1761 to 1763, removed and ſucceeded by
† William Franklin, 1763 to 1776, removed and ſucceeded by
† William Livingſton, 1776 to 1790, died and ſucceeded by
† William Patterſon, 1791——

PENNSYLVANIA.

Miles.		Situation and Extent.	Sq. Miles.
Length 288, Breadth 156	between	2° 20′ E. and 5° W. Longitude. 39° 43′ and 42° N. Latitude.	44,900

Boundaries.] Bounded eaſt, by Delaware river, which divides it from New Jerſey; north, by New York, and a territory of about 202,000 acres, on Lake Erie, purchaſed of Congreſs by this State; north-weſt, by a part of Lake Erie, where there is a good port; weſt, by the Weſtern Territory, and a part of Virginia; ſouth, by a part of Virginia, Maryland, and Delaware. The State lies in the form of a parallelogram.

Civil Divisions.] Pennſylvania is divided into twenty-two counties, which, with their county town, ſituation, &c. are mentioned in the following table, as alſo the various kinds of mines and minerals in the State.

Counties.	No. Inhab.	Chief Towns.	Situation.	Settle.	Mines, &c.
Philadelphia	54,391	Philadelphia	on Delawa. R.	All	
Cheſter	27,937	Weſt Cheſter	ditto	All	Iron ore
Delaware	9,483	Cheſter	ditto	All	
Bucks	25,401	Newtown	ditto	All	Iron ore & lead
Montgomery	22,929	Norriſtown	on Schuylk R.	All	Iron ore
Lancaſter	36,147	Lancaſter	on Suſqueh. R.	All	Iron ore & cop.
Dauphin	18,177	Hariſburgh	ditto	¾	Iron ore
Berks	30,179	Reading	on Schuylk R.	¾	I. ore, coal mi. &c.
Northampton	24,250	Eaſton	on Delawa. R.	¾	Iron ore
Luzerne	4,904	Wilkſburgh	on Suſqueh. R.	¾	I. ore, coal mi. &c.
York	37,747	York	ditto	¾	Iron ore
Cumberland	18,243	Carliſle	ditto	¾	I. ore & lead min.
Northumberland	17,161	Sunbury	on W. bran. Su.	* 1/10	I. ore, ſalt ſp.
Franklin	15,655	Chamberſton	on Suſqueh. R.	¾	Iron ore
Bedford	13,124	Bedford	on Juniata R.	½	Iron mines, &c.
Huntington	7,565	Huntington	ditto	¼	Coal & lead mi.
Mifflin	7,562	Lewiſburgh	ditto	¼	Iron ore
Weſtmoreland	16,018	Greenſburgh	on Allegany R.	¼	Coal mines
Fayette	13,325	Union	on Mononga.	½	Coal & iron min.
Waſhington	23,866	Waſhington	S.W. cor. State	¼	ditto, ditto
Allegany	10,309	Pittſburgh	on Allegany R.	¼	ditto, ditto
Total	434,373				

Rivers,

* A very large proportion of the vacant lands in the State are in this county, (Northumberland) to the amount of about eight millions of acres.

RIVERS, CANALS, &c.] There are ſix conſiderable rivers which, with their numerous branches, peninſulate the whole State, viz. The Delaware, Schuylkill, Suſquehannah, Youghiogeny, Monongahela, and Allegany. The bay and river Delaware are navigable from the ſea up to the great or lower falls at Trenton, 155 miles; and are accommodated with a light houſe, on Cape Henlopen, and with buoys and piers for the direction and ſafety of ſhips. The diſtance of Philadelphia from the ſea is about 60 miles acroſs the land in a S. W. courſe, to the New Jerſey coaſt, and 120 miles by the ſhip channel of the Delaware. So far it is navigable for a 74 gun ſhip. Sloops go 35 miles farther, to Trenton falls. The river is navigable for boats that carry eight or nine tons, an hundred miles farther, and for Indian canoes, except ſeveral ſmall falls or portages, 150 miles. At Eaſton it receives the Lehigh from the weſt, which is navigable thirty miles. The tide ſets up as high as Trenton Falls, and at Philadelphia riſes generally about five or ſix feet. A north-eaſt and eaſt wind raiſes it higher.

Between Cape Henlopen and Cape May is the entrance into the Delaware bay. The entrance into the river is twenty miles farther up, at Bombay Hook, where the river is four or five miles wide. From Bombay Hook to Reedy Iſland is twenty miles. This iſland is the rendezvous of outward bound ſhips in autumn and ſpring, waiting for a favourable wind. The courſe from this to the ſea is S. S. E. ſo that a N. W. wind, which is the prevailing wind in theſe ſeaſons, is fair for veſſels to put out to ſea. This river is generally frozen one or two months in the year at Philadelphia, ſo as to prevent navigation, but veſſels may at all times make a ſecure harbour at Port Penn, at Reedy Iſland, where piers have been erected by the State. Veſſels are generally from twelve to twenty-four hours in aſcending this beautiful river to Philadelphia; and the navigation is ſafe, and in the milder ſeaſons, eſpecially in the ſummer, is indeſcribeably pleaſant.

From Cheſter to Philadelphia, twenty miles by water and fifteen by land, the channel of the river is narrowed by iſlands of marſh, which are generally banked and turned into rich and *immenſely valuable* meadows.

Billingſport, twelve miles below Philadelphia, was fortified in the late war for the defence of the channel. Oppoſite this fort, ſeveral large frames of timber, headed with iron ſpikes, called chevaux de frizes, were ſunk to prevent the Britiſh ſhips from paſſing. Since the peace, a curious machine has been invented in Philadelphia to raiſe them.

The Schuylkill riſes north-weſt of the Kittatinny mountains, through which it paſſes, into a fine champaign country, and runs, from its ſource, upwards of 120 miles in a ſouth-eaſt direction, and paſſing through the limits of the city of Philadelphia falls into the Delaware oppoſite Mud Iſland, ſix or ſeven miles below the city. It is navigable from above Reading, eighty-five or ninety miles to its mouth. There are four floating bridges thrown acroſs it, made of logs faſtened together, and lying upon the water, in the vicinity of Philadelphia.

The N. E. branch of the Suſquehannah river riſes in lakes Otſego and Otego, in the State of New York, and runs in ſuch a winding courſe as to croſs the boundary line between New York and Pennſylvania three times. It receives Tyoga river, one of its principal branches, in lat. 41° 57′, three miles ſouth of the boundary line. The Suſquehannah branch is navigable for batteaux to its ſource, whence, to Mohawk river, is but twenty miles. The Tyoga branch is navigable fifty miles for batteaux; and its ſource is but a few miles from the Chenneſſee, which empties into lake Ontario. From Tyoga point, the river proceeds ſouth-eaſt to Wyoming without any obſtruc-

tion

tion by falls, and then ſouth-eaſt, over Wyoming falls, till at Sunbury, in about lat. 41°, it meets the weſt branch of Suſquehannah, which is navigable ninety miles from its mouth, and ſome of the branches of it are navigable fifty miles, and approach very near ſome of the boatable branches of the Allegany river. This noble river is paſſable to Middletown, (below Harris' Ferry) with boats, carrying ſeveral hundred buſhels, and with rafts of boards, &c. from the State of New York, as well as down the Tyoga, and Juniata branches, ſeveral hundred miles, in their different windings, but it is attended with difficulty and danger on account of the numerous falls below Middletown. About fifteen miles above Harriſburg, it receives the Juniata from the north-weſt, proceeding from the Allegany mountains, and flowing through a mountainous, broken, yet cultivable country. This river is navigable 120 miles from its mouth.

The Swetara, which falls into the Suſquehannah from the north-eaſt, is navigable fifteen miles. About half a mile from the mouth of this river, and a mile from Middletown, is a griſt mill, which merits particular notice. It is a very large and handſome ſtone building, has four pair of ſtones, and is perhaps in every reſpect one of the moſt complete in the State. But the moſt remarkable circumſtance relative to it, is the Race, which is a canal from twenty to thirty feet wide, and carried with ſuch a degree of boldneſs to a length of 476 rods or perches, through rocks and hills, and every obſtacle in its courſe, as cannot fail to excite a very high idea of the enterprize and perſevering induſtry of Mr. George Frey, the undertaker and owner.

From Swetara to the Tulpehoken branch of Schuylkill, a canal and lock navigation is undertaken, and the works commenced, by an incorporated company whoſe capital is 400,000 dollars. This leads through the Schuylkill to Philadelphia. When this ſhall be effected, a paſſage will be open to Philadelphia from the Juniata, the Tyoga, and the eaſt and weſt branches of the Suſquehannah, which water at leaſt 15,000,000 of acres. From this junction, the general courſe of the Suſquehannah is about ſouth-eaſt until it falls into the head of the Cheſapeak bay at Havre de Grace. It is above a mile wide at its mouth, and is navigable for ſea veſſels but about five miles, on account of its rapids. The banks of the river are very romantic, particularly where it paſſes through the mountains. This paſſage has every appearance of having been forced through by the preſſure of the water, or of having been burſt open by ſome convulſion in nature.

The ſeveral branches of the Youghiogeny river riſe on the weſt ſide of the Allegany mountains. After running a ſhort diſtance, they unite and form a large beautiful river, which, in paſſing ſome of the moſt weſtern ridges of the mountains, precipitates itſelf over a level ledge of rocks, lying nearly at right angles to the courſe of the river. Theſe falls, called the Ohiopyle falls, are about twenty feet in perpendicular height, and the river is perhaps eighty yards wide. For a conſiderable diſtance below the falls, the water is very rapid, and boils and foams vehemently, occaſioning a continual miſt to riſe from it, even at noon day, and in fair weather. The river at this place runs to the ſouth-weſt, but preſently winds round to the north-weſt, and continuing this courſe for thirty or forty miles, it loſes its name by uniting with the Monongahela, which comes from the ſouthward, and contains, perhaps, twice as much water. Theſe united ſtreams, ſhortly after their junction, mingle with the waters of the Allegany and Pittſburgh, and together form the grand river Ohio.

The Monongahela has been already particularly deſcribed, and ſome obſervations made on the navigation of the Allegany. In addition it may be obſerved, that the junction of French Creek (which comes from the north-weſt) with the Allegany, are the remains of a Britiſh fortification; and about a mile above is Fort Franklin, built

in 1787, and then guarded by a company of American ſoldiers. The Pennſylvania north line croſſes French Creek about three miles above Le Bœuf, where there was formerly a fort. From Le Bœuf to Preſqueiſle, fifteen or ſixteen miles, is an old waggon road, cut by the French in the war of 1755. The lands on French Creek are very rich, and moſtly cleared, which is an evidence that its former Indian inhabitants were numerous. Fourteen miles from the mouth of this creek is a gentle rapid, thence to its mouth, it is ſlow, deep, and ſmooth.

There is ſaid to be a practicable communication between the ſouthern branch of the Tyoga and a branch of the Allegany, the head waters of which are but a ſhort diſtance from each other. The Seneca Indians ſay they can walk four times in a day, from the boatable waters of the Allegany to thoſe of the Tyoga, at the place now mentioned. And between the Suſquehannah, juſt before it croſſes into Pennſylvania the firſt time, and the Delaware, is a portage of only twelve miles. Rafts of timber, plank, boards, and ſtaves, with other articles upon them, can be brought down the Delaware from the counties of Montgomery and Otſego in New York, 200 miles above the city by the courſe of the river. Some money was expended by the government and landholders in improving the navigation up towards the ſource, before the revolution, and there has been a ſurvey ſince made, for the purpoſe of proceeding in the improvement of this and the other principal rivers of Pennſylvania, and for making communications by canals in the improved part, and by roads in the unimproved part of the State. Great progreſs has already been made in theſe improvements, and the exertions for their completion are ſtill continued. The Pennſylvanians are much inclined to ſuch enterprizes, having found great benefit from them. On the completion of the preſent plans, the State will be as conveniently interſected by roads as any other of its ſize in the Union, which will greatly facilitate the ſettlement of its new lands. A ſlight view of the map of Pennſylvania will ſhew how finely this State is watered by the Delaware and its branches, the Schuylkill, the Juniata, the Suſquehannah and its branches, the Ohio, the Allegany, Youghiogeny, and Monongahela. The Patomak and Lake Erie alſo afford proſpects of conſiderable benefit from their navigation. Nature has done much for Pennſylvania in regard to inland water carriage, which is ſtrikingly exemplified by this fact, that although Philadelphia and lake Erie are diſtant from each other above 300 miles, there is no doubt but that the rivers of the State may be ſo improved, as to reduce the land carriage between them nine tenths. In the ſame way the navigation to Pittſburg, after due improvement, may be uſed inſtead of land carriage for the whole diſtance, except twenty-three miles.—By theſe routs it is clear, that a large proportion of the foreign articles uſed on the weſtern waters muſt be tranſported, and their furs, ſkins, ginſeng, hemp, flax, pot aſh, and other valuable commodities, brought to Philadelphia. The hemp and oak timber for the Ruſſian navy is tranſported by inland navigation 1200 miles, and yet hemp is ſhipped from that kingdom on lower terms than from any other part of the known world. Ruſſia, long ſince the ſettlement of Pennſylvania by civilized and enlightened people, was in a ſtate of abſolute barbariſm, and deſtitute of theſe improvements. Much therefore is to be expected from the continued exertions of the prudent, induſtrious, and ſenſible inhabitants of Pennſylvania, in the courſe of the preſent century.

One remark muſt not be omitted here, and that is, that in all the back country waters of this State, even in thoſe high up in the mountains, marine petrifactions are found in great abundance.

SWAMPS.] The only ſwamps worth noticing are, the *Great Swamp*, between Northampton and Luzerne counties, and *Buffaloe Swamp* in the State of New York, ſome diſtance

diſtance north of the Pennſylvania line. Theſe ſwamps, on examination and ſurvey, are found to be bodies of farm land, thickly covered with beach and ſugar maple.

MOUNTAINS, FACE OF THE COUNTRY, SOIL, AND NATURAL ADVANTAGES.] A conſiderable proportion of this State may be called mountainous; particularly the counties of Bedford, Huntingdon, Cumberland, part of Franklin, Dauphin, and part of Bucks and Northampton, through which paſs, under various names, the numerous ridges and ſpurs, which collectively form what we chuſe to call, for the ſake of clearneſs, THE GREAT RANGE OF ALLEGANY MOUNTAINS. The principal ridges in this range, in Pennſylvania, are the Kittatinny, or Blue Mountains, which paſs north of Nazareth in Northampton county, and purſue a ſouth-weſt courſe acroſs the Lehigh, through Dauphin county, juſt above Harriſburg, thence on the weſt ſide of the Suſquehannah through Cumberland and Franklin counties. Back of theſe, and nearly parallel with them, are Peters, Tuſcarra, and Neſcopek mountains, on the eaſt of the Suſquehannah; and on the weſt, Sharcman's Hills, Sideling Hills, Ragged, Great Warriors, Evit's and Wills' mountains; then the great Allegany ridge, which being the largeſt, gives its name to the whole range; weſt of this are the Cheſnut ridges. Between the Juniata and the weſt branch of the Suſquehannah are Jacks, Tuſſys, Nittiny, and Bald Eagle mountains. The vales between theſe mountains are generally of a rich, black ſoil, ſuited to the various kinds of grain and graſs. Some of the mountains will admit of cultivation almoſt to their tops. The other parts of the State are generally level, or agreeably variegated with hills and vallies.

In this connection, I beg leave to introduce the remarks of Mr. Charles Thompſon, the late ſecretary of Congreſs, which were ſuggeſted on his reading Mr. Jefferſon's deſcription of the paſſage of the Patomak through the Blue ridge. 'The reflections I was led into on viewing this paſſage of the Patomak through the Blue ridge were, that this country muſt have ſuffered ſome violent convulſion, and that the face of it muſt have been changed from what it probably was ſome centuries ago; that the broken and ragged faces of the mountain on each ſide the river; the tremendous rocks, which are left with one end fixed in the precipice, and the other jutting out and ſeemingly ready to fall for want of ſupport; the bed of the river for ſeveral miles below obſtructed, and filled with the looſe ſtones carried from this mound; in ſhort, every thing on which you caſt your eye evidently demonſtrates a diſrupture and breach in the mountain, and that, before this happened, what is now a fruitful vale, was formerly a great lake or collection of water, which poſſibly might have here formed a mighty caſcade, or had its vent to the ocean by the Suſquehannah, where the Blue ridge ſeems to terminate. Beſides this, there are other parts of this country which bear evident traces of a like convulſion. From the beſt accounts I have been able to obtain, the place where the Delaware now flows through the Kittatinny mountain, which is a continuation of what is called the North Ridge, or mountain, was not its original courſe, but that it paſſed through what is now called 'the Wind-gap,' a place ſeveral miles to the weſtward, and above an hundred feet higher than the preſent bed of the river. This wind-gap is about a mile broad, and the ſtones in it ſuch as ſeem to have been waſhed for ages by water running over them. Should this have been the caſe, there muſt have been a large lake behind that mountain, and by ſome uncommon ſwell in the waters, or by ſome convulſion of nature, the river muſt have opened its way through a different part of the mountain, and meeting there with leſs obſtruction, carried away with the oppoſing mounds of earth, and deluged the country below with the immenſe collection of waters to which this new paſſage gave vent. There are ſtill remaining, and daily diſcovered, innumerable inſtances of ſuch a deluge on both

ſides

ſides of the river, after it paſſed the hills above the fall of Trenton, and reached the champaign. On the New Jerſey ſide, which is flatter than the Pennſylvania ſide, all the country below Croſwick hills ſeems to have been overflowed to the diſtance of from ten to fifteen miles back from the river, and to have acquired a new ſoil by the earth and clay brought down and mixed with the native ſand. The ſpot on which Philadelphia ſtands evidently appears to be made ground. The different ſtrata through which they paſs in digging to water, the acorns, leaves, and ſometimes branches, which are found above twenty feet below the ſurface, all ſeem to demonſtrate this. I am informed that at Yorktown in Virginia, in the bank of York river, there are different ſtrata of ſhells and earth, one above another, which ſeem to point out that the country there has undergone ſeveral changes; that the ſea has, for a ſucceſſion of ages, occupied the place where dry land now appears: and that the ground has been ſuddenly raiſed at various periods. What a change would it make in the country below, ſhould the mountains at Niagara, by any accident, be cleft aſunder, and a paſſage ſuddenly opened to drain off the waters of Erie and the Upper lakes! While ruminating on theſe ſubjects, I have often been hurried away by fancy, and led to imagine, that what is now the bay of Mexico, was once a champaign country; and that from the point or cape of Florida, there was a continued range of mountains through Cuba, Hiſpaniola, Porto Rico, Martinique, Guadaloupe, Barbadoes, and Trinidad, till it reached the coaſt of America, and formed the ſhores which bounded the ocean, and guarded the country behind: that, by ſome convulſion or ſhock of nature, the ſea had broken through theſe mounds, and deluged that vaſt plain, till it reached the foot of the Andes; that being there heaped up by the trade winds, always blowing from one quarter, it had found its way back, as it continues to do, through the gulph between Florida and Cuba, carrying with it the loom and ſand it may have ſcooped from the country it had occupied, part of which it may have depoſited on the ſhores of North America, and which part formed the banks of Newfoundland.—But theſe are only the viſions of fancy.*

The ſoil of Pennſylvania is of various kinds; in ſome parts it is barren; a great proportion of the State is good land, and no inconſiderable part is very good. Perhaps the proportion of firſt rate land is not greater in any of the Thirteen States. The richeſt part of the State that is ſettled in Lancaſter county, and the valley through Cumberland, York, and Franklin. The richeſt that is unſettled, is between Allegany river and Lake Erie, in the north-weſt corner of the State, and in the country on the heads of the eaſtern branches of the Allegany. Of this fine tract, 100,000 acres, lying on, and near French Creek, are for ſale by the State. The convenient communications through this creek into the Allegany, and from the Allegany, through various creeks and rivers to Suſquehannah and Patomak, have already been mentioned.

The ſouth ſide of Pennſylvania is the beſt ſettled land throughout, owing entirely to the circumſtance of the weſtern road having been run by the armies, prior to 1762, through the towns of Lancaſter, Carliſle, and Bedford, and thence to Pittſburg. For the purpoſe of turning the tide of ſettlers from this old channel into the unſettled parts of the State, the government and landed intereſt of Pennſylvania have been, and are ſtill buſy in cutting convenient roads. During the ſummer of 1788 they run a road north, from a former road beyond Bethlehem, to the north portage between Delaware and Suſquehannah: and thence north eighty degrees weſt to the mouth of the Tyoga, the firſt ſeventy miles, and the laſt above ſixty. It is now in contemplation

* Jefferſon's Hiſtory of Virginia, printed for J. Stockdale. Appendix No. II.

to

to cut a road from Sunbury, at the forks of the eaſt and weſt branches of Suſquehannah; weſt 150 miles to the mouth of Toby's Creek, which empties into the Allegany river from the caſt. This road will be through a tract of rich land, now for ſale by the State. A road is alſo cut from the mouth of the Tyoga, ſouthward, to the mouth of Loyal, a branch of the weſt branch of Suſquehannah. Another road is cut from Huntingdon town, on Franks town branch of the Juniata, weſtward thirty miles to Conemagh, a navigable branch of the Allegany.

Thus the well-judged policy of this State is paving the way for the ſettlement of all their waſte lands. And to evidence their benevolence, and their wiſhes to have the advantages of education increaſed and more extenſively enjoyed, they have allotted 60,000 acres of theſe waſte lands for the uſe of public ſchools; and above 60,000 more have been granted for that purpoſe, and to the ſocieties eſtabliſhed for the promotion of knowledge, the arts, religion, &c. A conſiderable part of the lands of this State remain at preſent for ſale by the public. The Pennſylvanians having no diſputes with the Indians about boundaries, and all the lands within the State, being purchaſed at a fair and open treaty, and there being ſome ſettlements weſtward of the Pennſylvania line, there is little apprehenſion of the Indians any where, and in moſt parts of the State no danger at all.

Among the natural advantages of Pennſylvania, her almoſt innumerable mill ſeats ought not to be omitted. They are conveniently diſtributed by Providence throughout the State, and afford the means of eſtabliſhing every ſpecies of mill work and labour-ſaving machines, to meet the produce and raw materials almoſt at the farmers doors. In the preſent ſituation of this country, wanting hands for farming, and in the preſent ſtate of manufactures, when ingenious mechaniſm is every day and every where invented to leſſen the neceſſity for manual labour, this natural advantage muſt appear of ineſtimable importance. Hemp and flax are among the moſt profitable productions of the rich midland and new counties, *the Cream* of which is yet to be ſkimmed. It is therefore a moſt pleaſing fact, that they have in this State the full-ſized and complete movements or works of a water mill and machinery, to ſliver, rove, and ſpin flax and hemp into threads or yarns, fit for linen of thirty cuts to the pound, or any coarſer kind, ſheetings, towelling, ſail cloth, oznabrigs, twine, and the ſtrans or yarns for cordage. The ſame machinery is calculated for the roving or preparing, and ſpinning of combed wool into worſted yarn. They have alſo the movements and complete machinery of Sir Richard Arkwright's water-mill for ſpinning yarns of cotton. And though the climate of the State is not fit for cultivatiug that raw material, yet cotton can be raiſed with profit in every State in the Union ſouthward of Pennſylvania, and imported from the Eaſt and Weſt Indies.

It is certain that this extraordinary capacity of our country for mechanical works has either called forth, in an unuſual degree, the mechanical powers of the human mind, or that Providence has beſtowed upon the people of this and our ſiſter States an uncommon portion of this talent, which its nature and ſituation require. *Rittenhouſe* and *Franklin* ſtand unrivalled in mechanical philoſophy; and thoſe who know our country are well informed, that to theſe two *great* names we could add a conſiderable liſt of philoſophical and practical mechanicians, in a variety of branches.

So many of the neceſſary and convenient arts and trades depend upon the plenty and cheapneſs of fuel, that it appears proper to take notice of this article. Till the revolution, the dependence of the people was almoſt entirely upon wood fuel, of which, in the moſt populous places, there is ſtill a great abundance, and in all interior ſituations immenſe quantities; but the increaſe of manufactures has occaſioned them to turn

their attention to coal. Of this uſeful foſſile Providence has given them very great quantities in the middle and weſtern country. In the vicinity of Wyoming, on the Suſquehannah, is one bed of the open burning kind, and of the moſt intenſe heat. On the head waters of Schuylkill and Lehigh are ſome conſiderable bodies. At the head of the weſtern branch of Suſquehannah is a moſt extenſive body, which ſtretches over the country ſouth-weſtwardly, ſo as to be found in the greateſt plenty at Pittſburgh, where the Allegany and Youghiogeny unite, and form the head of the Ohio. All the coal has hitherto been accidentally found on the ſurface of the earth, or diſcovered in the digging of common cellars, ſo that when the wood fuel ſhall become ſcarce, and the European methods of boring ſhall be ſkilfully purſued, there can be no doubt of its being found in many other places. At preſent, the ballaſting of ſhips from coal countries abroad, and the coal mines in Virginia, which lie convenient to ſhip navigation, occaſion a good deal of coal to be brought to the Philadelphia market. From this great abundance and variety of fuel it reſults, that Pennſylvania, and the United States in general, are well ſuited to all manufactories that are effected by fire, ſuch as furnaces, foundaries, forges, glaſs houſes, breweries, diſtilleries, ſteel works, ſmith ſhops, and all other manufactories in metal, ſoap boiling, chandlers ſhops, pot aſh works, ſugar and other refineries, &c. &c.

Ship building is a buſineſs in which the port of Philadelphia exceeds moſt parts of the world. Maſts, ſpars, timber, and plank, not only from their own State and the other States on the Delaware, are conſtantly for ſale in their market; but the mulberry of the Cheſapeak, and the evergreen or live oak and red cedar of the Carolinas and Georgia, are ſo abundantly imported, that nine-tenths of their veſſels are built of them. No veſſels are better than theſe. A live oak and cedar ſhip of 200 tons, carpenter's meaſurement, can be fitted to take in a cargo for fourteen pounds currency per ton; and there is not a port in Europe in which an oak ſhip can be equally well built and fitted for twenty pounds per ton currency, or twelve pounds ſterling. This fact may appear doubtful or extraordinary, but it is certainly true; and it is greatly in favour of the ſhip carpenters and other tradeſmen employed in fitting and builing ſhips, as well as merchants and farmers, whoſe intereſts are ſo much connected with navigation.

The diſtance of Philadelphia from the ſea has been made an objection by ſome, and the cloſing of the river by the ice, which happens almoſt every winter. Amſterdam, the greateſt port in Europe, is inacceſſible in the winter. But it is a fact, that, notwithſtanding theſe objections, their veſſels make as many Weſt India voyages as thoſe of the two other principal ſea ports of the Middle States; and though the river is frozen from three to nine weeks almoſt every winter, yet there are occaſional openings, which give opportunities for fleets of merchantmen to go out and come in. The fine corn and proviſion country which lies near Philadelphia, enables the merchants to load their veſſels in the winter, and the market is regularly ſupplied with flour, pork, beef, lumber, ſtaves, iron, and many other of their principal articles of exportation. Little time is therefore loſt, and their trade increaſes. The crop of 1789, and other exports from the harveſt of that year to that of 1790, it was ſuppoſed, would load 120,000 tons of ſhipping. A very extenſive back country; and many large bodies of new lands, are ſettling faſt, which muſt ſend their produce to the Philadelphia market.

PRODUCTIONS, MANUFACTURES, AGRICULTURE, EXPORTS, &c.] We mention theſe articles together, becauſe it is difficult to ſeparate them. Under the foregoing head, we have anticipated ſome things that might be naturally mentioned here. They

produce, manufactures, and exports of Pennſylvania are very many and various; viz. wheat, flour, middlings, ſhip ſtuff, bran, ſhorts, ſhip bread, white water biſcuit, rye, rye flour, Indian corn or maize, Indian meal, buck-wheat, buck-wheat meal, bar and pig iron, ſteel, nail rods, nails, iron hoops, rolled iron, tire, gunpowder, cannon ball, iron cannon, muſquets, ſhips, boats, oars, handſpikes, maſts, ſpars, ſhip timber, ſhip blocks, cordage, ſquare timber, ſcantling, plank, boards, ſtaves, heading, ſhingles, wooden hoops, tanners bark, corn fans, coopers wares, bricks, coarſe earthen or potters ware, a very little ordinary ſtone ware, glue, parchment, ſhoes, boots, ſole leather, upper leather, dreſſed deer and ſheep ſkins, and gloves, and garments of the ſame, fine hats, many common, and a few coarſe; thread, cotton, worſted and yarn hoſiery, writing, wrapping, blotting, ſheathing, and hanging paper, ſtationary, playing cards, copper, ſilver and gold, clocks and watches, muſical inſtruments, ſnuff, manufactured tobacco, chocolate, muſtard ſeed and muſtard, ſtarch, hair powder, flax ſeed, flax ſeed oil, flax, hemp, wool, and cotton cards, pickled beef, pork, ſhad, herrings, tongues and ſturgeon, hams and other bacon, tallow, hogs lard, butter, cheeſe, candles, ſoap, bees-wax, loaf ſugar, pot and pearl aſh, rum and other ſtrong waters, beer, porter, hops, winter and ſummer barley, oats, ſpelts, onions, potatoes, turnips, cabbages, carrots, parſnips, red and white clover, timothy, and moſt European vegetables and graſſes, apples, peaches, plums, pears, apricots, grapes, both native and imported, and other European fruits, working and pleaſurable carriages, horſes, black cattle, ſheep, hogs, wood for cabinet-makers, lime-ſtone, coal, free-ſtone, and marble.

Some of theſe productions are fine, ſome indifferent; ſome of the manufactures are conſiderable, for a young country circumſtanced as this has been, ſome inconſiderable; but they are enumerated to ſhow the general nature of the State, and the various purſuits of the inhabitants. In addition to them we may mention, that a lead mine and two or three ſalt ſprings have been diſcovered in the new country, which will no doubt be worked, as ſoon as the demand for theſe articles to the weſtward increaſes. We ought alſo to notice the great foreſts for making pot and pearl aſh. Marble is found in many parts of the State.

The manufactures of Pennſylvania have increaſed exceedingly within a few years, as well by maſter workmen and journeymen from abroad, as by the increaſed ſkill and induſtry of their own citizens. Houſehold or family manufactures have greatly advanced, and valuable acquiſitions have been made of implements and machinery to ſave labour, either imported, or invented in the United States. The hand machines for carding and ſpinning cotton have been introduced by foreigners, and improved upon; but they have lately obtained the water mill for ſpinning cotton, and a water mill for flax, which is applicable alſo to ſpinning hemp and wool. Theſe machines promiſe an early eſtabliſhment of the cotton, linen, and hempen branches, and muſt be of very great ſervice in the woollen branch. Additional employment for weavers, dyers, bleachers, and other manufacturers, muſt be the conſequence. Paper mills, gunpowder mills, ſteel works, rolling and ſlitting mills, printing figured goods of paper, linen and cotton, coach making, book printing, and ſeveral other branches, are wonderfully advanced, and every month ſeems to extend the old manufactures, or to introduce new ones. There are upwards of fifty paper mills in Pennſylvania which work materials of no intrinſic value. The manufactures from the mills are computed at 250,000 dollars. The hands employed in them do not exceed 300. It is calculated that their paper mills alone indemnify them for five eighths of their quota of the expenſes of the general government, and the intereſt of the public debt.

The advancement of the agriculture of Pennſylvania is the beſt proof that can be given of the comfort and happineſs it affords to its farming, manufacturing, and trading citizens. In the year 1786 their exports of flour were 150,000 barrels (excluſive of many other articles); in 1787 they were 202,000 barrels; in 1788 they were 220,000 barrels; and in 1789 they were 369,618 barrels, which exceeds any export ever made in the times of the province or in the times of the commonwealth. The produce of flax is increaſed in a much greater degree, and that of wool is conſiderably more than it was before the revolution. A new article is likely to be added to the liſt of their productions, which is a well-taſted and wholſome *ſugar*, made of the *Maple-tree*. It has been proved by many fair and careful experiments, that it is in the power of a ſubſtantial farmer that has a family about him, eaſily to make twelve hundred weight of this ſugar every ſeaſon, without hiring any additional hands, or any utenſils but thoſe that are neceſſary for his family and farm uſe. The time in which it can be made is from the middle of February to the end of March, when farmers in this country have very little to do, as it is too early to plough or dig. The price of ſugar being lower here than in Europe, this article may be reckoned at 100 Mexican dollars per annum to every careful and ſkilful farmer, that owns land bearing the ſugar maple. Of theſe there are ſome millions of acres in Pennſylvania and the adjacent States, and at leaſt one or two millions belonging to this State for ſale. It ſeems alſo highly probable that this valuable tree may be tranſplanted, and thus be obtained by almoſt any farmer in the State, and that men of property, who will purchaſe kettles and hire hands for the above ſhort period, may make large quantities.

No difficulty lies in the way of any perſon who deſires to become a free and equal citizen. On the day of his landing he may buy a farm, a houſe, merchandize, or raw materials; he may open a work-ſhop, a counting-houſe, an office, or any other place of lawful buſineſs, and purſue his calling without any hindrance, or the payment of any ſum of money to the public. The right of electing and being elected (which does not affect his buſineſs or his ſafety) is not granted till the expiration of two years, which prudence requires.

A privilege, almoſt peculiar to this State, has been granted to foreigners by the legiſlature; that of buying and holding lands and houſes within this Commonwealth, without relinquiſhing their allegiance to the country in which they were born. They can ſell or bequeath the lands, receive the rents, and, in ſhort, have every territorial and pecuniary right that a natural-born Pennſylvanian has; but no civil rights. As they profeſs to owe allegiance to a foreign prince or government, and reſide in a foreign country, where they of courſe have civil rights, they cannot claim them, nor ought they to deſire them here, ſince no man can ſerve two maſters. If they chuſe, at any time after purchaſe, to come out to this country and make themſelves citizens; or if they chuſe to give their eſtate to a child, or other perſon, who will do ſo, either of them may become citizens to all intents and purpoſes.

Such is the preſent ſituation of things in Pennſylvania, which is more or leſs the ſame in ſeveral other of the American States, viz. Diſtrict of Main, New Hampſhire, Vermont, New York, Virginia, the Carolinas, and Georgia; but though not ſo in the reſt, the principal difference is, that they are ſo fully peopled, that there are few new lands of any value unſold, and farming lands, that are improved, are of courſe dearer. In thoſe States, however, agriculture, commerce, manufactures, the fiſheries, and navigation, afford comfortable ſubſiſtence and ample rewards of profit to the induſtrious and well-diſpoſed, amidſt the bleſſings of civil and religious liberty.

POPULATION

POPULATION AND CHARACTER.] The population of this State is mentioned in the table. It is nearly ten for every ſquare mile. The number of militia is eſtimated at upwards of 90,000, between 18 and 53 years of age.

The inhabitants are principally the deſcendants of the Engliſh, Iriſh, and Germans, with ſome Scotch, Welch, Swedes, and a few Dutch. There are alſo many of the Iriſh and Germans who emigrated when young or middle aged. The Friends and Epiſcopalians are chiefly of Engliſh extraction, and compoſe about one third of the inhabitants. They live principally in the city of Philadelphia, and in the counties of Cheſter, Philadelphia, Bucks, and Montgomery. The Iriſh are moſtly Preſbyterians, but ſome Catholics. Their anceſtors came from the north of Ireland, which was originally ſettled from Scotland; hence they have ſometimes been called Scotch Iriſh, to denote their double deſcent: but they are commonly and more properly called Iriſh, or the deſcendants of people from the north of Ireland. They inhabit the weſtern and frontier counties, and are numerous.

The Germans compoſe about one quarter of the inhabitants of Pennſylvania. They are moſt numerous in the north parts of the city of Philadelphia, and the counties of Philadelphia, Montgomery, Bucks, Dauphin, Lancaſter, York, and Northampton, moſtly in the four laſt, and are ſpreading in other parts. They conſiſt of Lutherans, (who are the moſt numerous ſect) Calviniſts or Reformed Church, Moravians, Catholics, Mennoniſts, Tunkers (corruptly called Dunkers), and Zwingfelters, who are a ſpecies of Quakers. Theſe are all diſtinguiſhed for their temperance, induſtry, and economy.

The Germans have uſually fifteen of ſixty-nine members in the Aſſembly; and ſome of them have ariſen to the firſt honours in the State, and now fill a number of the higher offices; yet the body of them want education. A literary ſpirit has however of late been increaſing among them.

The Baptiſts (except the Mennoniſt and Tunker Baptiſts, who are Germans) are chiefly the deſcendants of emigrants from Wales, and are not numerous. A proportionate aſſemblage of the national prejudices, the manners, cuſtoms, religions, and political ſentiments of all theſe, will form the Pennſylvanian character. As the leading traits in this character, thus conſtituted, we may venture to mention induſtry, frugality, bordering in ſome inſtances on parſimony, enterprize, a taſte and ability for improvements in mechanics, in manufactures, in agriculture, in public buildings and inſtitutions, in commerce, and in the liberal ſciences; temperance, plainneſs, and ſimplicity in dreſs and manners; pride and humility in their extremes; inoffenſiveneſs and intrigue; and in regard to religion, variety and harmony. Such appear to be the diſtinguiſhing traits in the collective Pennſylvanian character.

RELIGION.] The ſituation of religion and religious rights and liberty in Pennſylvania, is a matter that deſerves the attention of all ſober and well-diſpoſed people, who may have thoughts of this country. This State always afforded an aſylum to the perſecuted ſects of Europe. No church or ſociety ever was eſtabliſhed here, no tithes or tenths can be demanded; and though ſome regulations of the Crown of England excluded two churches from a ſhare in the government of the province, theſe are now done away with regard to every religious ſociety whatever, except the Hebrew Church. But a convention of ſpecial repreſentatives of the citizens of Pennſylvania have had under conſideration all the errors that have inadvertently crept into their conſtitution and frame of government, and, in the act they have publiſhed for the examination of the people, they have rejected the *half-way* doctrine of TOLERATION, and have *eſtabliſhed*, upon firm and perfectly equal ground, *all* denominations of religious men. By the pro-

viſions

viſions of the new code, a Proteſtant, a Roman Catholic, and a Hebrew, may elect or be elected to any office in the State, and purſue any lawful calling, occupation, or profeſſion.

LITERARY, HUMANE, AND OTHER USEFUL SOCIETIES.] Theſe are more numerous and flouriſhing in Pennſylvania, than in any of the Fifteen States. The names of theſe improving inſtitutions, the times when they were eſtabliſhed, and a ſummary of the benevolent deſigns they were intended to accompliſh, will be mentioned in their order.

1. THE AMERICAN PHILOSOPHICAL SOCIETY, *held at Philadelphia, for promoting uſeful knowledge.* This ſociety was formed January 2d, 1769, by the union of two other literary ſocieties that had ſubſiſted for ſome time in Philadelphia, and were created one body corporate and politic, with ſuch powers, privileges, and immunities as are neceſſary for anſwering the valuable purpoſes which the ſociety had originally in view, by a charter granted by the Commonwealth of Pennſylvania, on the 15th of March, 1780. This ſociety have already publiſhed two very valuable volumes of their tranſactions; one in 1771, the other in 1786.

In 1771, this ſociety conſiſted of nearly 300 members; and upwards of 120 have ſince been added; a large proportion of which are foreigners of the firſt diſtinction in Europe.

Their charter allows them to hold lands, gifts, &c. to the amount of the clear yearly value of ten thouſand buſhels of wheat. The number of members is not limited.

2. THE SOCIETY FOR PROMOTING POLITICAL INQUIRIES, conſiſting of fifty members, inſtituted in February, 1787.

3. THE COLLEGE OF PHYSICIANS, inſtituted in 1787, for the promotion of medical, anatomical, and chemical knowledge, incorporated by act of Aſſembly, March, 1789.

4. THE PENNSYLVANIA HOSPITAL, a humane inſtitution, which was firſt meditated in 1750, and carried into effect by means of a liberal ſubſcription of about 3000l. and by the aſſiſtance of the Aſſembly, who, in 1751, granted as much more for the purpoſe. The preſent building was begun in 1754, and finiſhed in 1756. This hoſpital is under the direction of twelve managers, choſen annually, and is viſited every year by a committee of the Aſſembly. The accounts of the managers are ſubmitted to the inſpection of the legiſlature. Six phyſicians attend *gratis*, and generally preſcribe twice or three times in a week, in their turns. This hoſpital is the general receptacle of lunatics and madmen, and of thoſe affected with other diſorders, and are unable to ſupport themſelves. Here they are humanely treated and well provided for.

5. THE PHILADELPHIA DISPENSARY, *for the medical relief of the poor.* This benevolent inſtitution was eſtabliſhed on the 12th of April, 1786, and is ſupported by annual ſubſcriptions of thirty-five ſhillings each perſon. No leſs than 1800 patients were admitted within ſixteen months after the firſt opening of the diſpenſary. It is under the direction of twelve managers and ſix phyſicians, all of whom attend *gratis*. This inſtitution exhibits an application of ſomething like the mechanical powers to the purpoſes of humanity. The greateſt quantity of good is produced this way with the leaſt money. Five hundred pounds a year defrays all the expenſes of the inſtitution. The poor are taken care of in their own houſes, and provide every thing for themſelves, except medicines, cordial drinks, &c.

6. THE PENNSYLVANIA SOCIETY, *for promoting the abolition of Slavery, and the relief of free Negroes unlawfully held in bondage.* This ſociety was begun in 1774, and enlarged on

on the 23d of April, 1787. The officers of the ſociety conſiſt of a preſident, two vice-preſidents, two ſecretaries, a treaſurer, four counſellors, an electing committee of twelve, and an acting committee of ſix members; all of whom, except the laſt, are to be choſen annually by ballot, on the firſt Monday in January. The ſociety meet quarterly, and each member contributes ten ſhillings annually, in quarterly payments, towards defraying its contingent expenſes.

The legiſlature of this State have favoured the humane deſigns of this ſociety, by "An Act for the gradual Abolition of Slavery," paſſed on the firſt of March, 1780; wherein, among other things, it is ordained that no perſon born within the State, after the paſſing of the act, ſhall be conſidered as a ſervant for life; and all perpetual ſlavery is by this act for ever aboliſhed. The act provides, that thoſe who would, in caſe this act had not been made, have been born ſervants or ſlaves, ſhall be deemed ſuch, till they ſhall attain the age of twenty-eight years; but they are to be treated in all reſpects as ſervants bound by indenture for four years.

7. THE SOCIETY OF THE UNITED BRETHREN, *for propagating the goſpel among the heathens*, inſtituted in 1787, to be held ſtatedly at Bethlehem. An act, incorporating this ſociety, and inveſting it with all neceſſary powers and privileges for accompliſhing its pious deſigns, was paſſed by the legiſlature of the State, on the 27th of February, 1788. They can hold lands, houſes, &c. to the annual amount of two thouſand pounds.

Theſe pious *Brethren*, commonly called Moravians, began a miſſion among the Mahikan, Wampano, Delaware, Shawanoe, Nantikok, and other Indians, about fifty years ago, and were ſo ſucceſsful as to add more than one thouſand ſouls to the Chriſtian church by baptiſm. Six hundred of theſe have died in the Chriſtian faith; about 300 live with the miſſionaries near Lake Erie, and the reſt are either dead, or apoſtates in the wilderneſs.

8. THE PENNSYLVANIA SOCIETY, *for the encouragement of manufactures and uſeful arts*, inſtituted in 1787, open for the reception of every citizen in the United States, which will fulfil the engagements of a member of the ſame. The ſociety is under the direction of a preſident, four vice-preſidents, and twelve managers, beſides ſubordinate officers. Each member, on his admiſſion, pays ten ſhillings at leaſt into the *general fund*; and the ſame ſum annually, till he ſhall ceaſe to be a member.

Beſides theſe, a very reſpectable inſurance company has lately been eſtabliſhed in Philadelphia, with a capital of 600,000 dollars, who have commenced buſineſs to advantage.—There is alſo a SOCIETY FOR ALLEVIATING THE MISERIES OF PRISONS; and a HUMANE SOCIETY, for the recovering and reſtoring to life the bodies of drowned perſons, inſtituted in 1770, under the direction of thirteen managers. And a SOCIETY *for the aid and protection of Iriſh emigrants*.

Alſo, an *Agricultural Society*; *a Society for German emigrants*; *a Marine Society*, conſiſting of captains of veſſels; *a Charitable Society for the ſupport of widows and families of Preſbyterian clergymen*; *and St. George's, St. Andrew's, and the Hibernian Charitable Societies*. Moſt of theſe ſocieties are in the city of Philadelphia.

COLLEGES, ACADEMIES, AND SCHOOLS.] From the enterprizing and literary ſpirit of the Pennſylvanians, we ſhould naturally conclude, what is fact, that theſe are numerous.

In Philadelphia is the Univerſity of Pennſylvania, founded and endowed by the legiſlature during the war. Profeſſorſhips are eſtabliſhed in all the liberal arts and ſciences, and a complete courſe of education may be purſued here from the firſt rudiments of literature to the higheſt branches of ſcience.

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The college and academy of Philadelphia was founded by charter between thirty and forty years ago, and endowed by ſubſcriptions of liberal-minded perſons. Though this inſtitution was interrupted in its progreſs for ſeveral years during the late war, yet being re-eſtabliſhed ſince the peace, it has rapidly recovered its former ſtate of proſperity, and to the bench of profeſſors has lately been added one of common and federal law, which renders it in reality, though not in name, an univerſity. An act to unite theſe two inſtitutions has paſſed the legiſlature. By their union they will conſtitute one of the moſt reſpectable ſeminaries of learning in the United States.

DICKINSON COLLEGE, at Carliſle, 120 miles weſtward of Philadelphia, was founded in 1783, and has a principal, three profeſſors, a philoſophical apparatus, a library conſiſting of nearly 3000 volumes, four thouſand pounds in funded certificates, and 10,000 acres of land; the laſt, the donation of the State. In 1787, there were eighty ſtudents belonging to this college. This number is annually increaſing. It was named after his Excellency John Dickinſon, author of the Pennſylvania Farmer's Letters, and formerly Preſident of the Supreme Executive Council of this State.

In 1787, a college was founded at Lancaſter, ſixty-ſix miles from Philadelphia, and honoured with the name of FRANKLIN COLLEGE, after his Excellency Dr. Franklin. This college is for the Germans; in which they may educate their youth in their own language, and in conformity to their own habits. The Engliſh language, however, is taught in it. Its endowments are nearly the ſame as thoſe of Dickinſon College. Its truſtees conſiſt of Lutherans, Preſbyterians, Calviniſts, and Engliſh; of each an equal number. The principal is a Lutheran, and the vice-principal is a Calviniſt.

The Epiſcopalians have an academy at York town, in York county. There are alſo academies at German town, at Pittſburg, at Waſhington, at Allen's town, and other places; theſe are endowed by donations from the legiſlature, and by liberal contributions of individuals.

The ſchools for young men and women in Bethlehem and Nazareth, under the direction of the people called Moravians, are upon the beſt eſtabliſhment of any ſchools in America. Beſides theſe, there are private ſchools, in different parts of the State; and to promote the education of poor children, the State have appropriated a large tract of land for the eſtabliſhment of free ſchools. A great proportion of the labouring people among the Germans and Iriſh are, however, extremely ignorant.

CHIEF TOWNS.] The city of Philadelphia, capital of the State of Pennſylvania, and the preſent ſeat of government of the United States of America, lies in latitude 39° 56′ North, and longitude 75° 8′ 45″ Weſt from Greenwich, upon the weſtern bank of the River Delaware, which is here but a mile in breadth, about 120 miles from the Atlantic ocean, by the courſe of the bay and river, about 55 or 60 miles from the ſea, in a ſouth-eaſtward direction.

It was laid out by William Penn, the firſt proprietary and founder of the province, in the year 1683, and ſettled by a colony from England, which arrived in that and the preceding years, and was increaſed, by a conſtant and regular influx of foreigners, to ſo great a degree, that in leſs than a century, and within the life-time of the firſt perſon born within it of European parents, it was computed to contain 6000 houſes and 40,000 inhabitants in the city and ſuburbs.

The ground plot of the city is an oblong ſquare, about one mile North and South, and two miles Eaſt and Weſt, lying in the narroweſt part of the iſthmus between the Delaware and Schuylkill rivers, about five miles in a right line above their confluence. The plain is ſo nearly level, except upon the bank of the Delaware, that art and labour were

were neceſſary to dig common ſewers and watercourſes in many places to drain the ſtreets. In the beginning of this ſettlement it was expected, that the fronts on both rivers would be firſt improved for the convenience of trade and navigation, and that the buildings would extend gradually in the rear of each, until they would meet and form one town extending from eaſt to weſt; but experience ſoon convinced the ſettlers that the Delaware front was alone ſufficient for quays and landing places, and that the Schuylkill lay at too great a diſtance to form part of the town on its banks; whence it followed that the town increaſed northward and ſouthward of the original plot, on the Delaware front, and now occupies a ſpace near three miles in length, north and ſouth, while the buildings in the middle, where they are moſt extended, do not reach a mile from the Delaware.

The city has been twice incorporated, and the limits thereof reſtrained to the oblong originally laid out by William Penn, without including the northern or ſouthern ſuburbs. This plot is interſected by a number of ſtreets at right angles with each other, nine of which run eaſt and weſt from Delaware to Schuylkill, and twenty-three north and ſouth, croſſing the firſt at right angles, forming one hundred and eighty-four ſquares of lots for buildings. The ſtreets running eaſt and weſt are named (except High Street near the middle of the city) from the trees found in the country upon the arrival of the colony; Vine, Saſſafras, Mulberry, High, Cheſnut, Walnut, Spruce, Pine, and Cedar Streets, and thoſe running north and ſouth from their numeral order, Front, Second, Third, Fourth, &c. to Broad Street, which is midway between the two rivers. In deeds, and other deſcriptive writings, which require exactneſs, theſe ſtreets have the Delaware or Schuylkill prefixed to their numeral names, to diſtinguiſh to which front they belong; as Delaware Second Street, &c. but as there are very few buildings weſtward of Broad Street, this addition is never made in common converſation, but when they are named they are underſtood of the Delaware front, unleſs Schuylkill be added.

Of theſe, High Street is 100 feet, Broad Street 113, Mulberry 60, and all the others 50 feet wide. Within the improved parts of the city they are paved in the middle with pebble ſtones, for carts and carriages, which uſually contain three fifths of the whole breadth, and on each ſide with bricks for foot paſſengers; between the brick and ſtone pavements are gutters, paved with brick, to carry off the water, and the foot ways are defended from the approach of carriages by rows of poſts placed without the gutters, at the diſtance of ten or twelve feet from each other.

Beſides the forementioned main ſtreets, there are many others not originally laid down in the plot, the moſt public of which are Water Street and Dock Street. Water Street is thirty feet wide, running below the bank, at the diſtance of about forty feet eaſtward from and parallel to Front Street, extending from the north line of the city ſouthward to the bridge over the dock, which was formerly a draw bridge, and retains that name in common uſe, although it was converted into a ſtone arch above thirty years ſince; from the bridge it is forty feet wide in a right line to Pine Street, and leaves a row of houſes without yards, on the bank, in its whole length, between it and Front Street; ſouthward of Pine Street, there is an offset of about eighty feet eaſtward, and the ſtreet from thence to Cedar Street is forty-five feet wide, and called Penn Street. This ſtreet, in the original plan, was intended only for a cart way to accommodate the wharves and ſtores to be erected under the bank, and not to riſe more than four feet above it, ſo as to leave the river open to the view from the weſt ſide of Front Street; but the inhabitants were ſoon convinced that the ground, on both ſtreets, was too valuable to be kept unimproved, in any degree, merely for the ſake of a proſpect, and it is

cloſely built with lofty houſes (except a very few vacancies here and there) throughout the whole front on both ſides, and commodious wharves are extended into the river, at which the largeſt ſhips that uſe the port, can lie in ſafety to diſcharge and receive their cargoes, and are defended from the ice in winter by the piers, made of logs extending into the river, ſunk with ſtone and filled with earth, ſo as to be equally firm with the main land.

Dock Street is the only crooked ſtreet in the city; beginning at the bridge in Front Street, and extending north-weſtward in a ſerpentine tract through two ſquares, acroſs Second and Walnut Streets, and terminates at Third Street; another branch of it extends ſouth-weſtward acroſs Spruce Street, and terminates at Second Street. The ground occupied by this ſtreet, and by an open ſpace between it and Spruce Street, below the bridge, was formerly a ſwamp, and was given by William Penn to the corporation for the uſe of the city; it was intended as a place to dig a baſon and docks to ſhelter the ſhipping, but experience proved that ſhips could be defended from the ice by the piers extended into the river, and that the dock could not be kept clean but at an expenſe far beyond its utility, wherefore it was neglected till it became a nuiſance offenſive to the ſmell and injurious to the health of the inhabitants, and was by act of Aſſembly, ordered to be arched over and covered with earth, whereby the city acquired a beautiful ſtreet more than one hundred feet in breadth towards the water, and not leſs than ninety feet in the narroweſt part.

The number of the ſtreets, lanes, and alleys, laid out by the owners of the lots before they were built on, is too great to be enumerated here, there being ſcarce a ſquare that is not interſected by one or more of them, ſome of them continued in a right line through ſeveral ſquares, and ſo ſpacious as to be eaſily miſtaken for main ſtreets, others only through one ſquare.

The city was firſt incorporated by charter under the great ſeal of the province, in the year 1701; before that period it was called the town of Philadelphia. By this charter William Penn nominated the firſt mayor, recorder, aldermen, and common councilmen, and granted them, among other privileges and franchiſes, that of electing others to ſupply vacancies, and even to increaſe their own number at pleaſure. The public grounds were granted to them by the name of the mayor and commonalty of the city of Philadelphia, but the commonalty had no ſhare in the government or eſtate of the city, the whole body being ſelf-elective, and not accountable to the citizens in any reſpect. It would be difficult to account for ſo extraordinary a charter from the wiſdom of William Penn, did not tradition inform us that among the firſt ſettlers were a conſiderable number from the city of Briſtol in England, whoſe charter, granted at an early period, before the rights of the commonalty were well underſtood, had been familiarized by habit, which induced them to requeſt a ſimilar one; a copy of the Briſtol charter was accordingly procured, and with little variation adopted. It was not long, however, before the commonalty began to be diſſatisfied with it and to make frequent complaints to the Aſſembly, of the abuſes that were practiſed under it; many of which appear upon the minutes of the houſe. At an early period after the charter, the legiſlative powers of this corporation were very limited; they could not levy a ſhilling by taxes for any uſe whatever, and could employ the income of the city eſtates only for the uſe and embelliſhment of the city; wherefore we ſee few monuments raiſed to preſerve the memory of that corporation. Although the firſt men for integrity and abilities to be found in the city were elected into the office of the body politic, yet ſuch is the nature of unlimited power, not accountable to the people, that it will divert the beſt men from purpoſes, which, before they were inveſted with the power, they would have highly

highly approved. The jealouſy which the citizens entertained of the corporation pervaded the General Aſſembly of the province, and when the lighting, watching, and paving the city became a deſirable object, the repreſentatives of the freemen would not entruſt the corporation alone with the power of raiſing or expending the money neceſſary for theſe purpoſes; they could not, however, caſt ſuch a reflection on the reſpectable characters of which that body was compoſed, as wholly to veſt theſe powers with others; they purſued a middle line, and conſtituted two ſeparate bodies by the names of city wardens and ſtreet commiſſioners, to the former of whom the lighting and watching, and to the latter the paving of the ſtreets, was committed; the mayor, or recorder, and four of the aldermen concurring with each body in laying the taxes and preſcribing the mode of expending them; thus the city legiſlation for theſe purpoſes became compounded of two branches, the wardens and commiſſioners immediately elected by the people, in the ſame manner as their repreſentatives in Aſſembly, conſtituted the democratic, and the mayor and aldermen the ariſtocratic branch. Theſe bodies, thus compounded, conducted the buſineſs committed to them with great harmony, nor is there the leaſt recollection of any diſagreement between them; the taxes were laid with equality, collected with moderation, and expended for the real uſe and improvement of the city; one complaint only had foundation, which aroſe from the nature rather than from any abuſe of the powers: the number of wardens and ſtreet commiſſioners was ſo great, as at very moderate wages to render thoſe boards too expenſive.

For the honour of the late corporation it ought not to be omitted, that the mayor's court was always filled with an able lawyer for the recorder, and another for the proſecution of criminal offences; and ſuch was the orderly and upright adminiſtration of juſtice in it, that no court in the province, or perhaps in any other country, exceeded it.

The prejudices under which the old corporation laboured from its original conſtitution, were ſo ſtrong, that upon the revolution, the General Aſſembly declared, by an act paſſed during their firſt ſeſſion, "That the powers and juriſdiction hitherto exerciſed by the mayor, recorder, and aldermen of the city of Philadelphia, were not founded on the authority of the people, and are therefore become null and void." Wherefore, by that and ſeveral ſubſequent acts, the powers of the corporation were diſtributed between the ſupreme executive council, the city magiſtrates, and the wardens and ſtreet commiſſioners, who exerciſed them from the year 1777 to 1789. The prejudices, which had no foundation as againſt corporations in general, but only againſt the conſtitution of the late corporation of the city, were however ſo ſtrong, that it was with difficulty the people could be prevailed upon to ſubmit to a new incorporation of the city. The defects in the adminiſtration of juſtice and governing the police of the city at length became ſo glaring, that they were ſeen by all claſſes of people, and their minds prepared for an act of incorporation. The General Aſſembly, in the winter ſeſſions of 1789, favouring the wiſhes of the citizens, paſſed an act, intitled, An Act to incorporate the city of Philadelphia, which, with a ſupplement paſſed in 1790, conſtitutes the preſent city charter. By theſe acts

The common council conſiſts of two branches; fifteen aldermen are choſen by the freeholders to continue in office for ſeven years; they chuſe a recorder from the citizens at large for ſeven years, and a mayor from their own number for one year. Thirty common councilmen are choſen by the citizens at large, entitled to vote for repreſentatives in Aſſembly, to continue in office for three years; theſe were intended to form a balanced government, upon the principle that the choice by freeholders, and

for a longer term, would produce a more ſelect body of aldermen, and that the citizens at large would chuſe characters fitter to repreſent and form the popular branch of city government. Eight aldermen and ſixteen common councilmen form a quorum or board to tranſact buſineſs, at which the mayor or recorder preſides; they ſit and deliberate together, but no act is legal, unleſs a majority of the aldermen, a majority of the common councilmen preſent, and the mayor or recorder, concur.

There is not perhaps in the world a more liberal plan of city government; every claſs of citizens have an opportunity of repreſenting and being repreſented. The body is ſufficiently numerous to contain ſome of every deſcription, and of every ſpecies of talents and information neceſſary for deliberation and execution, and yet not ſo large as to be encumbered with its own weight; it poſſeſſes the powers of legiſlation and taxation in all caſes neceſſary for the well-governing and improving the city, except in contradiction to acts of the General Aſſembly; and from the many improvements already introduced, there is reaſon to hope that its police will be equal to that of any modern city.

A city court is held by the mayor, recorder, and aldermen four times a year, and holds cognizance of all crimes and miſdemeanors committed within the city.

A court of alderman, having cognizance of debts above forty ſhillings, and not exceeding ten pounds, is held every week, beginning on Monday morning, and ſetting by adjournments until the buſineſs of the week is finiſhed.

Each alderman has ſeparate cognizance of debts under forty ſhillings.

The number of inhabitants within the city and ſuburbs (including the diſtrict of Southwark and the compactly built part of the Northern Liberties, which, to every purpoſe but as to their government, are conſidered as parts of the city) is found by the late cenſus to be 42,520, and the number of houſes 6,651, and ſtores or workſhops 415.

The houſes for public worſhip are numerous, and are as follows:

The Friends or Quakers, have	5*	The Swediſh Lutherans,	1†
The Preſbyterians, and Seceders,	6	The Moravians,	1
The Epiſcopalians,	3	The Baptiſts,	1
The German Lutherans,	2	The Univerſal Baptiſts,	1
The German Calviniſts,	1	The Methodiſts,	1
The Catholics,	4	The Jews.	1

The other public buildings in the city, beſides the univerſity and college already mentioned, are the following, viz.

A ſtate houſe and offices,	Two incorporated banks,
Two city court houſes,	A houſe of correction,
A county court houſe,	A dramatic theatre,
A carpenters hall,	A public obſervatory,
A philoſophical ſociety's hall,	A medical theatre and elaboratory,
A diſpenſary,	Three brick market houſes,
A hoſpital, and offices,	A fiſh market,
An alms houſe,	A public gaol.

The ſtate houſe is in Cheſnut Street, between Fifth and Sixth Streets, and was erected as early as 1735. The building is rather magnificent than elegant, but when it is

* One of theſe houſes is for thoſe Quakers who took up arms in defence of their country, in the late war, contrary to the eſtabliſhed principles of the Friends. They call themſelves *Free Quakers*.

† This is the oldeſt church in or near the city, and has lately been annexed to the Epiſcopal order.

remembered that it was built within fifty-three years after the firſt European cabin was erected in Pennſylvania, its architecture is juſtly admired. The ſtate houſe yard is a neat, elegant, and ſpacious public walk, ornamented with rows of trees; but a high brick wall, which encloſes it, limits the proſpect.

In 1787, an elegant court houſe was erected on the left of the ſtate houſe; and on the right, the town-hall or new court houſe, and a philoſophical hall. Theſe add much to the beauty of the ſquare.

South of the ſtate houſe is the public gaol, built of ſtone. It has a ground half-ſtory, and two ſtories above it. Every apartment is arched with ſtone againſt fire and force. It is a hollow ſquare, one hundred feet in front, and is the neateſt and moſt ſecure building of the kind in America. To the gaol is annexed a work houſe, with yards to each, to ſeparate the ſexes, and criminals from debtors. There have lately been added apartments in the yards for ſolitary confinement of criminals according to the new penal code. Of 4060 debtors, and 4000 criminals, in the whole 8060 who were confined in this new gaol, between the 28th of September, 1780, and the 5th of September 1790, twelve only died a natural death in the gaol.

The hoſpital and poor houſe, in which are upwards of 300 poor people, whether we conſider the buildings, or the deſigns for which they were erected, are unrivalled in America.

The German church, lately erected, is one of the moſt elegant churches in America. Mr. D. Taneberger, one of the united brethren's ſociety at Litiz, a great mechanical genius, has completed and erected a large organ for this church.

The market houſe in High Street is acknowledged by Europeans to exceed any thing they have ſeen of the kind, in extent, neatneſs, variety and abundance of proviſions. That at Callow-hill, at the north end of the city, and that at the north end, do honour to the citizens and their police.

The city is provided with a number of public and private charitable inſtitutions; the principal of which are, the houſe of employment, a large commodious building, where the poor of the city and ſome adjoining townſhips are ſupported and employed in coarſe manufactures to aid in defraying their expenſes, under the care of the overſeers and guardians of the poor, who are a corporate body created for this purpoſe by act of Aſſembly, with power to lay taxes for its further ſupport.

The Pennſylvania hoſpital, already mentioned.

The Quaker's alms houſe is ſupported by that ſociety for the uſe of their own poor; it is divided into a number of ſeparate houſes and rooms for families or ſingle perſons who have fallen into decay; moſt of them contribute by their induſtry towards their own ſupport, but are ſupplied with whatever their induſtry falls ſhort of procuring, by a committee of the ſociety, and live more comfortably than many who in full health and unhurt by accident, provide for their own ſubſiſtence; there is a conſiderable garden belonging to this houſe, from which the city is ſupplied, at very moderate prices, with every kind of medicinal herbs common to the climate.

A houſe founded by the late Dr. John Kearſley the elder, for the ſupport of twelve elderly widows of the Proteſtant Epiſcopal communion, in which a number of perſons of that deſcription, who have ſeen better days, are very comfortably and decently provided for.

The humane ſociety for recovering perſons ſuppoſed to be dead by drowning, eſtabliſhed upon ſimilar principles with thoſe of the ſame name in moſt ſea ports in Europe; it is under the care of twelve managers, annually choſen by the ſubſcribers; the phyſicians

ſicians afford their aid to this inſtitution gratis, a number of theſe being appointed for the purpoſe by the managers.

Almoſt every religious ſociety has a fund under proper direction, ſome of which are incorporated for the relief of the widows and children of their clergy or other diſtreſſed members of their communion.

There are alſo ſocieties formed for the relief of particular deſcriptions of perſons, with funds raiſed by ſubſcriptions or otherwiſe, for the purpoſe, ſuch as the ſea captains ſociety, the Delaware pilots ſociety, ſeparate ſocieties for the relief and aſſiſtance of emigrants and other diſtreſſed perſons, from England, Scotland, Ireland, Germany, &c. ſome of which are incorporated, ſo that there can ſcarce happen an inſtance of individual diſtreſs, for which a mode of advice, aſſiſtance, or relief is not provided without reſort to public begging.

Seminaries of learning are eſtabliſhed upon the moſt enlarged and liberal principles, of which the principal are, the univerſity of Pennſylvania and college of Philadelphia, already noticed.

Almoſt every religious ſociety have one or more ſchools under their immediate direction, for the education of their own youth of both ſexes, as well of the rich, who are able to pay, as of the poor, who are taught and provided with books and ſtationary gratis; beſides which, there are a number of private ſchools under the direction of maſters and miſtreſſes, independent of any public body; and there are ſeveral private academies for the inſtruction of young ladies in all the branches of polite literature, ſuitable to the ſex, and there is no individual, whoſe parents or guardians, maſters or miſtreſſes, will take the trouble to apply, but will be admitted into ſome one of theſe ſchools, and if they are unable to pay, will be taught gratis; it ought not to be omitted, that there is a ſchool for the Africans of every ſhade or colour, kept under the care and at the expenſe of the Quakers, into which are admitted gratis, ſlaves as well as free perſons of whatever age, of both ſexes, and taught reading, writing, arithmetic, knitting, ſewing, and other uſeful female accompliſhments: this ſchool was originally inſtituted by private ſubſcriptions of the ſociety, with a view to prepare that degraded race for a better ſituation in civil life; but the will of the late Antony Benezet, of benevolent memory, a conſiderable donation from the ſociety in England, and ſome other charitable deviſes, have provided funds adequate to its future ſupport, and it will no longer be burthenſome to individuals.

Sunday ſchools, for the inſtruction of children who would otherwiſe ſpend that day in idleneſs or miſchief, have lately been inſtituted, and it is to be hoped will tend to amend the morals and conduct of the riſing generation.

The public library of Philadelphia is a moſt uſeful inſtitution; it contains near ten thouſand volumes, well ſelected, for the information and improvement of all ranks of the citizens; they are depoſited in an elegant building lately erected, in a modern ſtyle, are are acceſſible every day in the week, except Sunday. Here the man of learning may conſult the work of the remoteſt ages, and trace hiſtories, arts, and ſciences from their infancy to this preſent ſtate of improvement, and the mechanic, the labourer, the ſtudent or apprentice may be ſupplied with books to improve their minds or amuſe them in their vacant hours at home. The company conſiſts of ſome hundreds of proprietors, incorporated by charter, who pay ten ſhillings annually for the purchaſe of new books, and defraying incidental expenſes; twelve directors are annually choſen, who manage the concerns of the company and keep a correſpondence with Europe, from whence they are regularly ſupplied with new publications of reputation and merit.

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The corporation have lately ordered the ſtreets, lanes, and alleys to be marked at every interſection of each other, and the houſes to be numbered. The names painted on boards, with an index hand pointing to the progreſſion of the numbers, are already affixed at the corners of the ſtreets, ſo that with the aid of the directory, a ſtranger may find without difficulty, any houſe whoſe ſtreet and number is known.

The city, within a few years paſt, has experienced a very remarkable revolution in reſpect to the healthineſs of its inhabitants; the bill of mortality proves that the number of deaths has conſiderably decreaſed ſince the year 1783, notwithſtanding the great increaſe of its population; this change in favour of health and life is aſcribed by phyſicians to the co-operation of the following cauſes: 1ſt, The arching the dock, whereby a very noxious and offenſive nuiſance was removed. 2d, The cultivation of the lots adjoining and partly ſurrounding the city, whereby another extenſive ſource of putrid exhalations is dried up. 3d, An increaſed care in cleanſing the ſtreets. 4th, An increaſe of horticulture, and conſequently greater conſumption of vegetable aliments. 5th, The inſtitution of the diſpenſary, which has extended medical aid to many hundreds in a year, who either periſhed for the want of it, or were ſacrificed by quacks. 6th, The more improved ſtate of phyſic, whence ſeveral diſeaſes formerly fatal in moſt inſtances are better underſtood and treated, and therefore more generally cured. And 7th, From a general diffuſion of knowledge among all claſſes of people, from their libraries, their numerous ſocieties, monthly, weekly, and daily publications, whence the people at large are better acquainted than formerly with the means of preſerving their health, as may be exemplified in one inſtance; there was but one death in the ſummer of 1792 from drinking cold water, whereas ſome years ago twenty has not been an uncommon number from this ſingle cauſe.*

No city can boaſt of ſo many uſeful improvements in manufactures, in the mechanical arts, in the art of healing, and particularly in the ſcience of humanity, as Philadelphia. The tradeſmen and manufacturers have become ſo numerous, that they are beginning to aſſociate for mutual improvement, and to promote regularity and uniformity in their ſeveral occupations. The carpenters, the cordwainers, the tailors, the watch-makers, the joiners, and hair-dreſſers, have already aſſociated, and others are forming into companies upon the ſame plan.

The Philadelphians have exerted their endeavours with happy and growing ſucceſs, to prevent the intemperate uſe of ſpirituous liquors.† In accompliſhing this benevolent purpoſe, on which ſo much of the proſperity and glory of our empire depend, every good citizen in the Union ought cheerfully to lend his aid and influence. As one important ſtep towards effecting their deſign, they are encouraging breweries, which are faſt increaſing. There are fourteen already in the city, and ſeven or eight in the country. The increaſe of the conſumption of beer, in the courſe of a few years paſt, in every part of America, and particularly in Pennſylvania, has been aſtoniſhing. It has become a faſhionable drink, and it is not improbable, but that in a few years it will come into univerſal uſe among all claſſes of people. In proportion as the uſe of beer increaſes, in the ſame proportion will the uſe of ſpirituous liquors decreaſe. This

* In July, 1793, a moſt malignant fever broke out in Philadelphia, which raged with ſuch uncommon fury, that there were buried of this diſeaſe from the 1ſt of Auguſt, to the 9th of November, four thouſand and thirty-ſeven perſons, as was collected from the ſeveral books kept by the clergymen and ſextons. The firſt ſymptoms of this melancholy diſorder were diſcovered on the 26th of July, but of the cauſe, the opinions of the faculty are various.

† It is much to be wiſhed that our Londoners would follow their laudable example.

will

will be a happy change. The Philadelphia porter, which is exported to various parts, is reckoned equal to that which is manufactured in London.

In ſhort, whether we conſider the local ſituation, the ſize, the beauty, the variety and utility of the improvements in mechanics, in agriculture, and manufactures, or the induſtry, the enterprize, the humanity, and the abilities of the inhabitants of the city of Philadelphia, it merits to be viewed as the capital of the flouriſhing EMPIRE OF UNITED AMERICA.

The borough of LANCASTER is the largeſt inland town in the United States. It is the ſeat of juſtice in Lancaſter county, and ſtands on Conеſtoga Creek, ſixty-ſix miles, a little to the north of the weſt from Philadelphia. Its trade is already large; and muſt increaſe in proportion as the ſurrounding country populates. It contains about ſeven or eight hundred houſes, beſides a moſt elegant court houſe, a number of handſome churches, and other public buildings, and about five thouſand ſouls, a great proportion of whom are manufacturers.

CARLISLE is the ſeat of juſtice in Cumberland county, and is one hundred and twenty miles weſtward of Philadelphia. It contains upwards of 1500 inhabitants, who live in more than three hundred ſtone houſes, and worſhip in three churches. They have alſo a court houſe and a college. Thirty-eight years ago, this ſpot was a wilderneſs, and inhabited by Indians and wild beaſts. A like inſtance of the rapid progreſs of the arts of civilized life is ſcarcely to be found in hiſtory.

PITTSBURGH, on the weſtern ſide of the Allegany mountains, 320 miles weſtward of Philadelphia, is beautifully ſituated on a large plain, which is the point of land between the Allegany and Monongahela river, and about a quarter of a mile above their confluence, in latitude 40° 26′ north. It contains about two hundred houſes, ſtores, and ſhops, and eight or nine hundred inhabitants, who are chiefly Preſbyterians and Epiſcopalians. The ſurrounding country is very hilly, but good land, and well ſtored with excellent coal. The rivers abound with fine fiſh, ſuch as pike, pearch, and cat fiſh, which are all much larger than the ſame ſpecies on the eaſtern ſide of the mountains.

This town is laid out on Penn's plan, and is a thoroughfare for the travellers from the Eaſtern and Middle States, to the ſettlements on the Ohio.

SUNBURY, the ſhire town of Northumberland county, is ſituated on the eaſt ſide of Suſquehannah river, juſt below the junction of the eaſt and weſt branches, in about latitude 40° 53′, and about 120 miles north-weſt from Philadelphia, and contains about 100 houſes.

BETHLEHEM is ſituated on the river Lehigh, a weſtern branch of the Delaware, fifty-three miles north of Philadelphia, in latitude 40° 37′. The town being built partly on high riſing ground, and partly on the lower banks of the Manakes, (a fine creek, which affords trout and other fiſh) has a very pleaſant and healthy ſituation, and is frequently viſited in the ſummer ſeaſon by gentry from different parts. The proſpect is not extenſive, being bounded very near by a chain of the Lehigh hills. To the northward is a tract of land called the *dry lands*.

In the year 1787, the number of inhabitants amounted to between 500 and 600, and the houſes were about ſixty in number, moſtly good ſtrong buildings of lime-ſtone. The town has ſince conſiderably increaſed.

Beſides the church or public meeting-hall, there are three large ſpacious buildings, viz.

1. The

1. The ſingle brethren's or young men's houſe, facing the main ſtreet or public road. Here the greateſt part of the ſingle tradeſmen, journeymen, and apprentices of the town are boarded at a moderate rate, under the inſpection of an elder and warden, and have, beſides the public meetings, their houſe for devotions, morning and evening prayers. Different trades are carried on in the houſe for the benefit of the ſame.

2. The ſingle ſiſter's, or young women's houſe, where they live under the care of female inſpectors. Such as are not employed in private families, earn their bread moſtly by ſpinning, ſewing, fine needle-work, knitting, and other female occupations.

Though this houſe has its particular regulations to preſerve order and decorum, and may perhaps bear ſome reſemblance to a nunnery, (being ſometimes improperly ſo called) yet the plan is very different. The ladies are at liberty to go about their buſineſs in the town, or to take a walk for recreation; and ſome are employed in private families, or live with their parents; neither are they bound to remain in the ſingle ſtate, for every year ſome of them enter into the married ſtate.

As to their almoſt uniform dreſs, the women in general, for the ſake of avoiding extravagance, and the follies of faſhion, have hitherto kept to a particular ſimple dreſs, introduced among them in Germany many years ago.

3. The houſe for the widow women; where ſuch as have not a houſe of their own, or means to have their own houſe furniſhed, live nearly in the ſame way as do the ſingle ſiſters. Such as are poor, infirm, and ſuperannuated, are aſſiſted or maintained by the congregation, as is the caſe with other members of the ſame that are not able to obtain ſubſiſtence for themſelves.

There is, beſides, an inſtitution of a ſociety of married men, begun ſince the year 1770, for the ſupport of their widows. A conſiderable fund or principal has been raiſed by them, the intereſt of which, as well as the yearly contributions of the members, is reguarly divided among the widows, whoſe huſbands have been members of the inſtitution.

In the houſe adjoining the church is the ſchool for girls; and ſince the year 1787, a boarding ſchool for young ladies from different parts, who are inſtructed in reading and writing, (both Engliſh and German) grammar, arithmetic, hiſtory, geography, needle-work, muſic, &c.

The miniſter of the place has the ſpecial care and inſpection of this as well as of the boys ſchool, which is kept in a ſeparate houſe, fitted to that purpoſe, and are taught reading and writing in both languages, the rudiments of the Latin tongue, arithmetic, &c. Theſe ſchools, eſpecially that for the young ladies, are deſervedly in very high repute, and ſcholars more than can be accommodated, are offered from all parts of the United States.

Beſides the different houſes for private tradeſmen, mechanics, and others, there is a public tavern at the north end of the town, with good accommodations; alſo a ſtore, with a general aſſortment of goods; an apothecary's ſhop; a large farm yard; and on the lower part, on Manakes Creek, is a large tanyard, a currier's and dyer's ſhop, a griſt mill, fulling mill, oil mill, and ſaw mill; and on the banks of the Lehigh, a brewery.

The town is ſupplied with good water from a ſpring, which being in the lower part of the town, is raiſed up the hill by a machine of a very ſimple conſtruction, to the height of upwards of one hundred feet, into a reſervoir, whence it is conducted by pipes into the ſeveral ſtreets and public buildings of the town.

The ferry acroſs the river is of ſuch particular contrivance, that a flat, large enough to carry a team of ſix horſes, runs on a ſtrong rope fixed and ſtretched acroſs; and, by the mere force of the ſtream, without any other aſſiſtance, croſſes the river backwards and forwards; the flat always being put in an oblique direction, with its foremoſt end verging towards the line deſcribed by the rope.

The greater part of the inhabitants, as well as the people in the neighbourhood, being of German extraction, this language is more in uſe than the Engliſh. The latter, however, is taught in the ſchools, and divine ſervice performed in both languages.

Nazareth is ten miles north from Bethlehem, and ſixty-three north from Philadelphia: it is a tract of good land, containing about 5000 acres, purchaſed originally by the Rev. Mr. George Whitfield in 1740, and ſold two years after to the brethren. The town was laid out almoſt in the center of this tract in 1772. Two ſtreets croſs each other at right angles, and form a ſquare, in the middle, of 340 by 200 feet. The largeſt building is a ſtone houſe, erected in 1755, named Nazareth Hall, ninety-eight by forty ſix long, and fifty-four in height. In the lowermoſt ſtory is a ſpacious meeting-hall, or church; the upper part of the houſe is chiefly fitted for a boarding-ſchool, where youth, from different parts, are under the care and inſpection of the miniſter of the place and ſeveral tutors, and are inſtructed in the Engliſh, German, Latin, and French languages; in hiſtory, geography, book-keeping, mathematics, muſic, drawing, and other ſciences. The front of the houſe faces a large ſquare open to the ſouth, adjoining a fine piece of meadow ground, and commands a moſt beautiful and extenſive proſpect. Another elegant building on the eaſt ſide of Nazareth Hall is inhabited by ſingle ſiſters, who have the ſame regulations and way of living as thoſe in Bethlehem. Beſides their principal manufactory for ſpinning and twiſting cotton, they have lately begun to draw wax tapers.

At the ſouth-weſt corner of the aforeſaid ſquare, in the middle of the town, is the ſingle brethren's houſe, and on the eaſt-ſouth-eaſt corner a ſtore. On the ſouthernmoſt end of the ſtreet is a good tavern. The houſes are, a few excepted, built of lime-ſtone, one or two ſtories high, inhabited by tradeſmen and mechanics moſtly of German extraction. The inhabitants are ſupplied with water conveyed to them by pipes from a fine ſpring near the town. The place is noted for having an exceedingly pleaſant ſituation, and enjoying a pure and ſalubrious air. The number of inhabitants in the town and farms belonging to it, (Schœneck included) conſtituting one congregation, and meeting for divine ſervice on Sundays and holidays at Nazareth Hall, was, in the year 1788, about 450.

Litiz is in Lancaſter county and Warwick townſhip, eight miles from Lancaſter, and ſeventy miles weſt from Philadelphia. This ſettlement was begun in the year 1757. There are now, beſides an elegant church, and the houſes of the ſingle brethren and ſingle ſiſters, which form a large ſquare, a number of houſes for private families, with a ſtore and tavern, all in one ſtreet. There is alſo a good farm and ſeveral mill works belonging to the place. The number of inhabitants, including thoſe that belong to Litiz congregation, living on their farms in the neighbourhood, amounted, in 1787, to upwards of 300.

The three laſt-mentioned towns are ſettled chiefly by Moravians, or the United Brethren.

Harrisburgh, as it is commonly called, but legally ſtyled Louiſburgh, is the principal town in Dauphin county, is a very flouriſhing place, about 100 miles weſt by

north from Philadelphia. It contained, in 1789, 130 dwelling houſes, a ſtone gaol, and a German church. At that period it had been ſettled but about three years.

Waſhington, 300 miles weſt of Philadelphia, and beyond the Ohio, has been ſettled ſince the war, and is remarkable for the *variety* of its manufactures for ſo young and interior a town; it has thirty-two manufactures of twenty-two different kinds.

Curious Springs.] In the neighbourhood of Reading is a ſpring about fourteen feet deep and about 100 feet ſquare; a full mill ſtream iſſues from it; the waters are clear and full of fiſhes. From appearances, it is probable that this ſpring is the outlet of a very conſiderable river, which a mile and an half or two miles above this place, ſinks into the earth, and is conveyed to this outlet in a ſubterraneous channel.

In the northern parts of Pennſylvania there is a creek called Oil Creek, which empties into the Allegany river; it iſſues from a ſpring, on the top of which floats an oil, ſimilar to that called Barbadoes tar, and from which one man may gather ſeveral gallons in a day. The troops ſent to guard the weſtern poſts halted at this ſpring, collected ſome of the oil, and bathed their joints with it. This gave them great relief from the rheumatic complaints with which they were affected: the waters, of which the troops drank freely, operated as a gentle cathartic.

Remarkable Caves.] There are three remarkable grottos, or caves, in this State; one near Carliſle, in Cumberland county; one in the townſhip of Durham, in Bucks county, and the other at Swetara, in Lancaſter county; the latter is on the eaſt bank of Swetara river, about two miles above its confluence with the Suſquehannah. Its aperture is under a pretty high bank, and from fifteen to twenty feet wide, and from ſeven to ten in height. You enter, by a gradual deſcent, ſo low, as that the ſurface of the river is rather higher than the bottom of the cave, and in your progreſs paſs through a number of paſſages and apartments of various dimenſions, ſome low and narrow, others very high and ſpacious, vaulted by magnificent canopies, fretted with a variety of depending petrifactions, ſome of which are drawn to a great length by means of the conſtant exudation and accretion of petrifying matter, till ſolid pillars have been gradually formed. Theſe appear as ſupports to the roof, which is of ſolid lime ſtone, perhaps twenty feet thick. Thirty years ago there were ten ſuch pillars, each ſix inches in diameter, and ſix feet high, all ſo ranged, that the place they encloſed reſembled a ſanctuary in a Roman church: no royal throne ever exhibited more grandeur than this *luſus naturæ*. The reſemblances of ſeveral monuments are found indented in the walls on the ſides of the cave, which appear like the tombs of departed heroes. Suſpended from the roof is 'the bell,' (which is nothing more than a ſtone projected in an unuſual form) ſo called from the ſound it occaſions when ſtruck, which is ſimilar to that of a bell.

Some of the ſtalactites are of a colour like ſugar-candy, and others reſemble loaf-ſugar; but their beauty is much defaced by the ſmoke of the torches which are frequently employed in conducting the curious traveller through this gloomy receſs. The water, which is exudated through the roof, runs down the declivity, and is both pleaſant and wholeſome to drink. There are ſeveral holes in the bottom of the cave deſcending perpendicularly, perhaps into an abyſs below, which renders it dangerous to walk without a light. At the end of the cave is a pretty brook, which, after a ſhort courſe, loſes itſelf among the rocks. Beyond this brook is an outlet from the cave by a very narrow aperture. Through this the vapours continually paſs outwards with a ſtrong current of air and aſcend, reſembling at night the ſmoke of a furnace. Part of theſe vapours and fogs appear, on aſcending, to be condenſed at the head of this great alembic, and the more volatile parts to be carried off through

the aperture communicating with the exterior air before-mentioned, by the force of the air in its paſſage.

ANTIQUITIES.] On a high hill, near the Tyoga river, a little to the ſouthward of the line which divides New York from Pennſylvania, are to be ſeen the remains of an ancient fortification. The form of it is circular, and it is encompaſſed with an entrenchment. The entrenchment only remains. The Indians are entirely ignorant of the origin of theſe works. The hill is an excellent ſituation for a fort, and commands a delightful view of the country around it, which is low and fertile. There is a fortification of a ſimilar kind at Unadilla, in the flat lands, and they are numerous in the weſtern counties.

CONSTITUTION.] The ſupreme executive power of the commonwealth is veſted in a Governor; the legiſlative, in a General Aſſembly, conſiſting of a ſenate and a houſe of repreſentatives. The governor is choſen for three years, but cannot hold his office more than nine years in twelve. A plurality of votes makes a choice. The repreſentatives are elected for one year; the ſenators for four. The latter are divided into four claſſes. The time of one claſs expires each year, whoſe ſeats are then filled by new elections. Each county chooſes its repreſentatives ſeparately. The ſenators are choſen in diſtricts formed by the legiſlature. There is to be an enumeration of the inhabitants once in ſeven years. The number of ſenators and repreſentatives is, after each enumeration, to be fixed by the legiſlature, and apportioned among the ſeveral counties and diſtricts, according to the number of taxable inhabitants. There can be never fewer than ſixty, nor more than 100 repreſentatives. The number of ſenators cannot be leſs than one fourth, nor greater than one third of the repreſentatives. The elections are made on the ſecond Tueſday of October. The General Aſſembly meets on the firſt Tueſday of December in each year, unleſs ſooner convened by the governor. A majority of each houſe makes a quorum to do buſineſs, and a leſs number may adjourn from day to day, and compel the attendance of members. Each houſe chooſes its ſpeaker and other officers, judges of the qualifications of its members, and eſtabliſhes the rules of its proceedings. Impeachments are made by the houſe of repreſentatives, and tried by the ſenate. All bills for raiſing revenue originate in the lower houſe, but the ſenate may propoſe amendments. The ſenators and repreſentatives are free from arreſts while attending the public buſineſs, except in caſes of treaſon, felony, and breach of the peace; and are not liable to be queſtioned concerning any thing ſaid in public debate. They are compenſated out of the public treaſury, from which no money can be drawn but in conſequence of appropriation by law. The journals of both houſes are publiſhed weekly, and their doors kept open, unleſs their buſineſs requires ſecreſy. All bills which have paſſed both houſes muſt be preſented to the governor; if he approve he muſt ſign them, but if he does not approve, he muſt return them within ten days, with his objections, to the houſe in which they originated: no bill, ſo returned, ſhall become a law, unleſs it be repaſſed by two thirds of both houſes. The governor is commander in chief of the military force, may remit fines and forfeitures, and grant reprieves and pardons, except in caſes of impeachment; may require information from all executive officers; may, on extraordinary occaſions, convene the General Aſſembly, and adjourn it, for any term not exceeding four months, in caſe the two branches cannot agree on the time themſelves. He muſt inform the General Aſſembly of the ſtate of the commonwealth; recommend ſuch meaſures as he ſhall judge expedient; and ſee that the laws are faithfully executed. In caſe of vacancy in the office of governor, the ſpeaker of the ſenate exerciſes that office.—The judicial power is veſted in a ſupreme and inferior court, the judges

judges of which, and juſtices of the peace, are appointed by the governor, and commiſſioned during good behaviour; but are removeable on the addreſs of both houſes. The other officers of the State are appointed, ſome by the Governor, ſome by the General Aſſembly, and ſome by the people. The qualifications for an elector are twenty-one years of age, two years reſidence, and payment of taxes. They are privileged from arreſts in civil actions while attending elections. Thoſe for a repreſentative are, twenty-one years of age and three years inhabitancy. For a ſenator, twenty-five years of age and four years inhabitancy. For a governor, thirty years of age and ſeven years inhabitancy. The governor can hold no other office. The ſenators and repreſentatives none, but of attorney at law and in the militia. No perſon holding an office of truſt, or profit, under the United States, can hold any office in this State, to which a ſalary is by law annexed. All the officers of the State are liable to impeachment, and are bound by oath, or affirmation, to ſupport the conſtitution, and perform the duties of their offices.

The declaration of rights aſſerts the natural freedom and equality of all; liberty of conſcience; freedom of elections and of the preſs; ſubordination of the military to the civil powers; trial by jury; ſecurity from unreaſonable ſearches and ſeizures; a right to an equal diſtribution of juſtice; to be heard in criminal proſecutions; to petition for the redreſs of grievances; to bear arms; and to emigrate from the State. It declares, that all power is inherent in the people, and that they may, at any time, alter their form of government; that no perſon ſhall be obliged to maintain religious worſhip, or ſupport any miniſtry; that all perſons believing in the being of a God, and a future ſtate of rewards and puniſhments, are eligible to office; that laws cannot be ſuſpended but by the legiſlature; that all perſons ſhall be bailable, unleſs for capital offences, when the proof is evident, or preſumption ſtrong; that every debtor ſhall be releaſed from priſon on delivering his eſtate to his creditors, according to law, except there be ſtrong preſumption of fraud; that the privileges of the writ of *habeas corpus* ſhall not be ſuſpended but in time of rebellion, or public danger; that no *ex poſt facto* law ſhall be made; that no perſon ſhall be attainted by the legiſlature, or forfeit his eſtate for longer term than his own life; that no title of nobility, or hereditary diſtinction, ſhall ever be granted.

The foregoing conſtitution was ratified in 1790.

Among other uſeful laws of this State, of a public nature, are, one that declares all rivers and creeks to be highways; a law for the emancipation of negroes, already mentioned; a bankrupt law, nearly on the model of the bankrupt laws of England; a law commuting hard labour for a long term of years, for death, as a puniſhment for many crimes which are made capital by the laws of England. Murder, arſon, and one or two other crimes, are yet puniſhed with death.

New Inventions.] Theſe have been numerous and uſeful. Among others are the following; A new model of the planetary worlds, by Mr. Rittenhouſe, commonly, but improperly, called an orrery; a quadrant, by Mr. Godfrey, called by the plagiary name of Hadley's quadrant; a ſteam boat, ſo conſtructed, as that by the aſſiſtance of ſteam, operating on certain machinery within the boat, it moves with conſiderable rapidity againſt the ſtream without the aid of hands. Meſſrs. Fitch and Rumſay contend with each other for the honour of this invention. Beſides theſe, there have been invented many manufacturing machines for carding, ſpinning, winnowing, &c. which perform an immenſe deal of work with very little manual aſſiſtance.

History.] Pennſylvania was granted by King Charles II. to Mr. William Penn, ſon of the famous Admiral Penn, in conſideration of his father's ſervices to the crown.* Mr. Penn's petition for the grant was preſented to the king in 1680; and after conſiderable delays, occaſioned by Lord Baltimore's agent, who apprehended it might interfere with the Maryland patent, the charter of Pennſylvania received the royal ſignature on the 4th of March, 1681. To ſecure his title againſt all claims and prevent future altercation, Mr. Penn procured a quit claim deed from the duke of York, of all the lands, covered by his own patent, to which the duke could have the leaſt pretenſions. This deed bears date Auguſt 21, 1682. On the 24th of the ſame month he obtained from the duke, by deed of feoffment, Newcaſtle, with twelve miles of the adjacent territory, and the lands ſouth to the Hoarkills. In December following, Mr. Penn effected a union of the lower counties with the province of Pennſylvania.†

The firſt frame of government for Pennſylvania is dated in 1682. By this form, all legiſlative powers were veſted in the governor and freemen of the province, in the provincial council, and a general aſſembly. The council was to conſiſt of ſeventy-two members, choſen by the freemen; of which the governor, or his deputy, was perpetual preſident, with a treble vote. One third of this council went out of office every year, and their ſeats were ſupplied by new elections.

The General Aſſembly was at firſt to conſiſt of all the freemen, afterwards of 200, and never to exceed 500.

In 1683 Mr. Penn offered another frame of government, in which the number of repreſentatives was reduced, and the governor veſted with a *negative* upon all bills paſſed in Aſſembly. By ſeveral ſpecious arguments the people were perſuaded to accept this frame of government.

Not long after, a diſpute between Mr. Penn and Lord Baltimore required the former to go to England, and he committed the adminiſtration of government to five commiſſioners taken from the council. In 1686 Mr. Penn required the commiſſioners to diſſolve the frame of government; but not being able to effect his purpoſe, he, in 1688, appointed Capt. John Blackwell his deputy. From this period the proprietors uſually reſided in England, and adminiſtered the government by deputies, who were devoted to their intereſt. Jealouſies aroſe between the people and their governors, which never ceaſed till the late revolution. The primary cauſe of theſe jealouſies was an attempt of the proprietary to extend his own power, and abridge that of the Aſſembly; and the conſequence was, inceſſant diſputes and diſſenſions in the legiſlature.

In 1689, Governor Blackwell, finding himſelf oppoſed in his views, had recourſe to artifice, and prevailed on certain members of the council to withdraw themſelves from the houſe; thus defeating the meaſures of the legiſlature.‡ The houſe voted this to be treachery, and addreſſed the governor on the occaſion.

In 1693, the king and queen aſſumed the government into their own hands. Col. Fletcher was appointed governor of New York and Pennſylvania by one and the

* A large debt was due from the crown to Mr. Penn, a part of which he offered to remit, on condition he obtained his grant. This, whatever benevolent motives are held out to the world, muſt have been a principal conſideration with the king in making the grant.

† See Dr. Franklin's Hiſtorical Review of the Conſtitution and Government of Pennſylvania, p. 16.

‡ Two inſtances of a receſſion of members from the Aſſembly, with ſimilar views, have taken place ſince the revolution, and ſeem to have been copied from the example in 1689.

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ſame commiſſion, with equal powers in both provinces. By this commiſſion, the number of counſellors in Pennſylvania was reduced.

Under the adminiſtration of Governor Markham in 1696, a new form of government was eſtabliſhed in Pennſylvania. The election of the council and aſſembly now became annual, and the legiſlature, with their powers and forms of proceeding, was new-modelled.

In 1699, the proprietary arrived from England, and aſſumed the reins of government. While he remained in Pennſylvania, the laſt *charter of privileges* or frame of government, which continued till the revolution, was agreed upon and eſtabliſhed. This was completed and delivered to the people by the proprietary, October 28, 1701, juſt on his embarking for England. The inhabitants of the *Territory*, as it was then called, or the lower counties, refuſed to accept this charter, and thus ſeparated themſelves from the province of Pennſylvania. They afterwards had their own aſſembly, in which the governor of Pennſylvania uſed to preſide.

In September 1700, the Suſquehannah Indians granted to Mr. Penn all their lands on both ſides the river. The Suſquehannah, Shawaneſe, and Patomak Indians, however, entered into articles of agreement with Mr. Penn, by which, on certain conditions of peaceable and friendly behaviour, they were permitted to ſettle about the head of Patomak, in the province of Pennſylvania. The Conoſtoga chiefs alſo in 1701 ratified the grant of the Suſquehannah Indians made the preceding year.

In 1708, Mr. Penn obtained from the Sachems of the country, a confirmation of the grants made by former Indians, of all the lands from Duck Creek to the mountains, and from the Delaware to the Suſquehannah. In this deed, the Sachems declared that "they had ſeen and heard read divers prior deeds, which had been given to Mr. Penn by former chiefs."

While Mr. Penn was in America, he erected Philadelphia into a corporation. The charter was dated October 25, 1701, by which the police of the city was veſted in a mayor, recorder, aldermen, and common-council, with power to inquire into treaſons, murders, and other felonies; and to inquire into and puniſh ſmaller crimes. The corporation had alſo extenſive civil juriſdiction; but it was diſſolved at the late revolution, and Philadelphia was governed like other counties in the State, till 1789, when it was again incorporated.

By the favourable terms which Mr. Penn offered to ſettlers, and an unlimited toleration of all religious denominations, the population of the province was extremely rapid. Notwithſtanding the attempts of the proprietary or his governors to extend his own power, and accumulate property by procuring grants from the people, and exempting his lands from taxation, the government was generally mild, and the burdens of the people by no means oppreſſive. The ſelfiſh deſigns of the proprietaries were vigorouſly and conſtantly oppoſed by the Aſſembly, whoſe firmneſs preſerved the charter rights of the province.

At the revolution, the government was aboliſhed. The proprietaries were abſent, and the people, by their repreſentatives, formed a new conſtitution on republican principles. The proprietaries were excluded from all ſhare in the government, and the legiſlature offered them 130,000l. in lieu of all quit-rents, which was finally accepted. The proprietaries, however, ſtill poſſeſs in Pennſylvania many large tracts of excellent land.

It is to be regretted, that among all the able writers in this important State, none has yet gratified the public with its intereſting hiſtory. As this is not profeſſedly the province

province of a geographer, a more particular detail of hiſtorical facts, than has already been given, will not be expected. We ſhall therefore conclude with the following liſt of governors.

A LIST *of the ſeveral* PROPRIETORS, GOVERNORS, LIEUTENANT-GOVERNORS, *and* PRESIDENTS *of the* PROVINCE, *with the Times of their reſpective Adminiſtration.*

PROPRIETORS.

The Honourable William Penn, born 1644, died 1718.
Thomas Penn, and
Richard Penn, died 1771.
John Penn, ſen. and
John Penn, jun.

GOVERNORS, &c.

Lieutenant-Governor,	William Penn, *Proprietor,*	from Oct. 1682, to Aug. 1684
Preſident,	Thomas Lloyd,	Aug. 1684, to Dec. 1688
Deputy Lieutenant-Gov.	John Blackwell,	Dec. 1688, to Feb. 1689-90
Preſident and Council	governed,	Feb. 1689-90, to April 26, 1693
Deputy Governor,	Benjamin Fletcher,	26 April 1693, to 3 June 1693
Lieutenant-Governor,	William Markham,	3 June 1693, to Dec. 1699
Lieutenant-Governor,	William Penn, *Proprietor,*	3 Dec. 1699, to 1 Nov. 1701
Deputy Lieutenant-Gov.	Andrew Hamilton,	1 Nov. 1701, to Feb. 1702-3
Preſident and Council	governed,	Feb. 1702-3, to Feb. 1703-4
Deputy Lieutenant-Gov.	John Evans,	Feb. 1703-4, to Feb. 1708-9
	Charles Gookin,	March 1708-9, to 1717
	Sir William Keith, *Bart.*	1717, to June 1726
	Patrick Gordon	June 1726, to 1736
	George Thomas,	1738, to 1747
Preſident,	Anthony Palmer,	1747, to 1748
Deputy Lieutenant-Gov.	James Hamilton,	1748, to Oct. 1754
	Robert Hunter Morris,	Oct. 1754, to 19 Aug. 1756
	William Denny,	19 Aug. 1756, to 17 Nov. 1759
	James Hamilton,	17 Nov. 1759, to 31 Oct. 1763
	John Penn,	31 Oct. 1763, to 6 May, 1771
Preſident,	James Hamilton,	6 May 1771, to 16 Oct. 1771
Lieutenant-Governor,	Richard Penn,	16 Oct. 1771.
Preſidents of the Supreme Executive Council of the State *of* Pennſylvania.	Thomas Wharton,	March 1777, to April 1778
	Joſeph Reed,	Oct. 1778, to Oct. 1781
	William Moore,	Nov. 1781, to Nov. 1782
	John Dickinſon,	Nov. 1782, to Oct. 1785
	Benjamin Franklin,	Oct. 1785, to Oct. 1788
	Thomas Mifflin,	Oct. 1788, to Oct. 1790
Governor,	Thomas Mifflin, Oct. 1790.	

DELAWARE.

Situation and Extent.

Miles.						Sq. Miles.
Length 92, Breadth 24	between	38° 30′	and 40°	N. Lat.		2,000
		0°	and 1° 45′	W. Long.		

Boundaries and Name.] BOUNDED on the eaſt, by the river and bay of the ſame name, and the Atlantic ocean; on the ſouth, by a line from Fenewick's Iſland, in latitude 38° 29′ 30″, drawn weſt till it interſects what is commonly called the *tangent* line, dividing it from the State of Maryland; on the weſt, by the ſaid tangent line, paſſing northward up the peninſula, till it touches the weſtern part of the territorial circle; and thence on the north, by the ſaid circle, deſcribed with a radius of 12 miles about the town of Newcaſtle.

This State appears to have derived its name from Lord *Delawar*, who completed the ſettlement of Virginia.

Civil Divisions.] This State is divided into three counties, which are ſubdivided into hundreds.

Counties.	No. Inhab.	Slaves.	Chief Towns.
Newcaſtle	19,686	2562	Newcaſtle
Kent	18,920	2300	Dover
Suſſex	20,488	4025	Lewes
Total	59,094	8887	

Before the revolution this diſtrict of country was denominated, "*The three lower Counties.*"

Rivers and Creeks.] The eaſtern ſide of the State is indented with a large number of creeks, or ſmall rivers, which generally have a ſhort courſe, ſoft banks, numerous ſhoals, and are ſkirted with very extenſive marſhes, and empty into the river and bay of Delaware. In the ſouthern and weſtern parts of this State ſpring the head waters of Pocomoke, Wicomico, Nanticoke, Choptank, Cheſter, Saſſafras, and Bohemia rivers, all falling into Cheſapeak bay, and ſome of them are navigable 20 or 30 miles into the country, for veſſels of 50 or 60 tons.

Public Improvements.] Juſt before the commencement of the war, a work of conſiderable importance was begun at Lewes, in the ſouthern part of the State, viz. the erection of a bridge and cauſeway from the town, over the creek and marſh to the oppoſite cape. This expenſive work was juſt completed when the Britiſh ſhips firſt came into the road of Lewes. In order to prevent too eaſy a communication, they partially removed it; and it being afterwards neglected, it was in complete ruins at the cloſe of the war. A bridge, upon the ſame plan, but upon a new foundation, has lately been erected at the ſole expenſe of individuals: it extends about a quarter of a mile from the town to the beach, over a wide creek and marſh. The inhabitants are compenſated for their expenſe, by the facility of the communication between the town and the cape.

Several canals in different parts of this State are contemplated, one of which is down the waters of the Brandywine.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, SOIL, AND PRODUCTIONS.] The State of Delaware, the upper parts of the county of Newcaſtle excepted, is, to ſpeak generally, extremely low and level. Large quantities of ſtagnant water, at particular ſeaſons of the year, overſpreading a great proportion of the land, render it equally unfit for the purpoſes of agriculture, and injurious to the health of the inhabitants. The ſpine, or higheſt ridge of the peninſula, runs through the State of Delaware, inclined to the caſtern or Delaware ſide. It is deſignated in Suſſex, Kent, and part of Newcaſtle county, by a remarkable chain of ſwamps, from which the waters deſcend on each ſide, paſſing on the eaſt to the Delaware, and on the weſt to the Cheſapeak. Many of the ſhrubs and plants growing in theſe ſwamps are ſimilar to thoſe found on the higheſt mountains.

Delaware is chiefly an agricultural State. It includes a very fertile tract of country; and ſcarcely any part of the Union can be ſelected more adapted to the different purpoſes of agriculture, or in which a greater variety of the moſt uſeful productions can be ſo conveniently and plentifully reared. The ſoil along the Delaware river, and from eight to ten miles into the interior country, is generally a rich clay, producing large timber, and well adapted to the various purpoſes of agriculture. From thence to the ſwamps above mentioned the ſoil is light, ſandy, and of an inferior quality.

The general aſpect of the country is very favourable for cultivation. Excepting ſome of the upper parts of the county of Newcaſtle, the ſurface of the State is very little broken or irregular. The heights of Chriſtiana are lofty and commanding; ſome of the hills of Brandywine are rough and ſtony; but deſcending from theſe, and a few others, the lower country is ſo little diverſified as almoſt to form one extended plain. In the county of Newcaſtle, the ſoil conſiſts of a ſtrong clay; in Kent, there is a conſiderable mixture of ſand; and in Suſſex, the quantity of ſand altogether predominates. Wheat is the ſtaple of this State: it grows here in ſuch perfection as not only to be particularly ſought by the manufacturers of flour throughout the Union, but alſo to be diſtinguiſhed and preferred, for its ſuperior qualities, in foreign markets. This wheat poſſeſſes an uncommon ſoftneſs and whiteneſs, very favourable to the manufacture of ſuperfine flour, and in other reſpects far exceeds the hard and flinty grains raiſed in general on the high lands. Beſides wheat, this State generally produces plentiful crops of Indian corn, barley, rye, oats, flax, buck-wheat, and potatoes. It abounds in natural and artificial meadows, containing a large variety of graſſes. Hemp, cotton, and ſilk, if properly attended to, doubtleſs would flouriſh very well.

The county of Suſſex, beſides producing a conſiderable quantity of grain, particularly of Indian corn, poſſeſſes excellent grazing lands. This county alſo exports very large quantities of lumber, obtained chiefly from an extenſive ſwamp, called the *Indian River* or Cypreſs Swamp, lying partly within this State, and partly in the State of Maryland. This moraſs extends ſix miles from eaſt to weſt, and nearly twelve from north to ſouth, including an area of nearly 50,000 acres of land. The whole of this ſwamp is a high and level baſon, very wet, though undoubtedly the higheſt land between the ſea and the bay, whence the Pocomoke deſcends on one ſide, and Indian river and St. Martin's on the other. This ſwamp contains a great variety of plants, trees, wild beaſts, birds, and reptiles.

CHIEF TOWNS.] DOVER, in the county of Kent, is the ſeat of government. It ſtands on Jones' Creek, a few miles from the Delaware river, and conſiſts of about 100 houſes, principally of brick. Four ſtreets interſect each other at right angles, whoſe

whoſe incidencies form a ſpacious parade, on the eaſt ſide of which is an elegant ſtate-houſe of brick. The town has a lively appearance, and drives on a conſiderable trade with Philadelphia. Wheat is the principal article of export. The landing is five or ſix miles from the town of Dover.

NEWCASTLE is 35 miles below Philadelphia, on the weſt bank of Delaware river. It was firſt ſettled by the Swedes, about the year 1627, and called Stockholm; it was afterwards taken by the Dutch, and called New Amſterdam. When it fell into the hands of the Engliſh, it was called by its preſent name. It contains about 60 houſes, which have the aſpect of decay, and was formerly the ſeat of government. This is the firſt town that was ſettled on Delaware river.

WILMINGTON is ſituated a mile and a half weſt of Delaware river, on Chriſtiana Creek, 28 miles ſouthward from Philadelphia. It is much the largeſt and pleaſanteſt town in the State, containing upwards of 400 houſes, which are handſomely built upon a gentle aſcent of an eminence, and ſhow to great advantage as you ſail up the Delaware; it contains about 2,400 inhabitants. In this town are two Preſbyterian churches, a Swediſh Epiſcopal church, a Baptiſt and a Quaker meeting, and a few Methodiſts. There is alſo a flouriſhing academy of about 40 or 50 ſcholars, who are taught the languages, and ſome of the ſciences. This academy, in proper time, is intended to be erected into a college. There is another academy at Newark in this county, which was incorporated in 1769. Theſe academies were interrupted during the war, and their funds ruined by the depreciation of Continental paper money. Since the peace learning ſeems to revive and flouriſh.

MILFORD is ſituated at the ſource of a ſmall river, 15 miles from Delaware bay, and 150 ſouthward of Philadelphia. This town, which contains about 80 houſes, has been built, except one houſe, ſince the revolution; it is laid out with much good taſte, and is by no means diſagreeable. The inhabitants are Epiſcopalians, Quakers, and Methodiſts.

DUCK CREEK CROSS ROADS—is 12 miles north-weſt from Dover, and has eighty or ninety houſes, which ſtand on one ſtreet. It carries on a conſiderable trade with Philadelphia, and is one of the largeſt wheat markets in the State. Kent is alſo a place of conſiderable trade.

LEWES is ſituated a few miles above the light-houſe on Cape Henlopen; it contains about 150 houſes, built chiefly on a ſtreet, which is more than three miles in length, and extending along a creek which ſeparates the town from the pitch of the cape. The ſituation is high, and commands a full proſpect of the light-houſe and the ſea. The court-houſe and gaol are commodious buildings, and give an air of importance to the town. The ſituation of this place muſt at ſome future time render it conſiderably important. Placed at the entrance of a bay, which is crowded with veſſels from all parts of the world, and which is frequently cloſed with ice a part of the winter ſeaſon, neceſſity ſeems to require, and nature ſeems to ſuggeſt, the forming this port into a harbour for ſhipping. Nothing has prevented this heretofore but the deficiency of water in the creek. This want can be cheaply and eaſily ſupplied by a ſmall canal, ſo as to afford a paſſage for the waters of Rehoboth into Lewes creek, which would enſure an adequate ſupply. The circumjacent country is beautifully diverſified with hills, wood, ſtreams, and lakes, forming an agreeable contraſt to the naked ſandy beach, which terminates in the cape; but it is greatly infeſted with muſketoes and ſand flies.

TRADE AND MANUFACTURES.] We have already mentioned wheat as the ſtaple commodity of this State. This is manufactured into flour and exported in large quantities. The exports from the port of Wilmington, where a number of ſquare-rigged veſſels are owned, for the year 1786, in the article of flour, was 20,783 barrels ſuperfine, 457 ditto common, 256 ditto middlings, and 346 ditto ſhip ſtuff. The manufacture of flour is carried to a higher degree of perfection in this State, than in any others in the Union. Beſides the well-conſtructed mills on red clay and white clay creeks, and other ſtreams in different parts of the State, the celebrated collection of mills at Brandywine merit a particular deſcription. Here are to be ſeen, at one view, 12 merchant mills (beſides a ſaw mill) which have double that number of pairs of ſtones, all of ſuperior dimenſions, and excellent conſtruction. Theſe mills are three miles from the mouth of the creeks on which they ſtand, half a mile from Wilmington, and 27 from Philadelphia, on the poſt road from the eaſtern to the ſouthern States. They are called the Brandywine mills, from the ſtream on which they are erected. This ſtream riſes near the Welch mountains in Pennſylvania, and after a winding courſe of 30 or 40 miles through falls, which furniſh numerous ſeats (130 of which are already occupied) for every ſpecies of water works, empties into Chriſtiana creek, near Wilmington. The quantity of wheat manufactured at theſe mills annually is not accurately aſcertained: it is eſtimated, however, by the beſt informed on the ſubject, that theſe mills can grind 400,000 buſhels in a year. But although they are capable of manufacturing this quantity yearly, yet, from the difficulty of procuring a permanent ſupply of grain, the inſtability of the flour-market, and other circumſtances, there are not commonly more than from about 290 to 300,000 buſhels of wheat and corn manufactured here annually. In the fall of 1789, and ſpring of 1790, there were made at the Brandywine mills 50,000 barrels of ſuperfine flour, 1354 ditto of common, 400 ditto middlings, as many of ſhip ſtuff, and 2000 ditto corn meal. The quantity of wheat and corn ground, from which this flour, &c. was made, was 308,000 buſhels, equal to the export in thoſe articles from the port of Philadelphia for the ſame year.

Theſe mills give employment to about 200 perſons, viz. about 40 to tend the mills, from 50 to 70 coopers, to make caſks for the flour, a ſufficient number to man 12 ſloops, of about 30 tons each, which are employed in the tranſportation of the wheat and flour, the reſt in various other occupations connected with the mills. The navigation quite to theſe mills is ſuch, that a veſſel carrying 1000 buſhels of wheat may be laid along ſide of any of theſe mills; and beſide ſome of them the water is of ſufficient depth to admit veſſels of twice the above ſize. The veſſels are unloaded with aſtoniſhing expedition. There have been inſtances of 1000 buſhels being carried to the height of four ſtories in four hours. It is frequently the caſe, that veſſels with 1000 buſhels of wheat come up with flood tide, unlade, and go away the ſucceeding ebb, with 300 barrels of flour on board. In conſequence of the machines introduced by the ingenious Mr. Oliver Evans, three quarters of the manual labour before found neceſſary is now ſufficient for every purpoſe. By means of theſe machines, when made uſe of in the full extent propoſed by the inventor, the wheat will be received on the ſhallop's deck, thence carried to the upper loft of the mill, and a conſiderable portion of the ſame returned in flour on the lower floor, ready for packing, without the aſſiſtance of manual labour but in a very ſmall degree, in proportion to the buſineſs done. The tranſportation of flour from theſe mills to the port of Wilmington does not require half an hour; and it is frequently the caſe, that a cargo is taken from the mills and

delivered at Philadelphia the ſame day. The ſituation of theſe mills is very pleaſant and healthful. The firſt mill was built here about 50 years ſince. There is now a ſmall town of forty houſes, principally ſtone and brick, which, together with the mills and the veſſels loading and unloading beſide them, furniſh a charming proſpect from the bridge, from whence they are all in full view.

Beſides the wheat and flour trade, this State exports lumber and various other articles. The amount of exports for the year ending September 30, 1791, was 199,840 dollars.

LIGHT-HOUSE.] The light-houſe, near the town of Lewes, was burnt in 1777. Since the war it has been completed and handſomely repaired. It is a fine ſtone ſtructure, eight ſtories high; the annual expenſe of which is eſtimated at about 650l. currency.

RELIGION.] In this State there is a variety of religious denominations. Of the Preſbyterian ſect, there are 24 churches; of the Epiſcopal, 14; of the Baptiſt, 7; of the Methodiſt, a conſiderable number, eſpecially in the two lower counties of Kent and Suſſex, the number of their churches is not exactly aſcertained. Beſides theſe, there is a Swediſh church at Wilmington, which is one of the oldeſt churches in the United States.

POPULATION.] See table of diviſions.

MINERALS.] In the county of Suſſex, among the branches of the Nanticoke river, large quantities of bog iron ore are to be found. Before the revolution, this ore was worked to conſiderable extent; it was thought to be of a good quality, and peculiarly adapted to the purpoſes of caſtings. Theſe works have chiefly fallen to decay.

CONSTITUTION.] The conſtitution of this State begins by declaring ſome of the rights of the people, and enumerates nearly the ſame that are mentioned in the declaration of rights of Pennſylvania: it then delegates the legiſlative power to a General Aſſembly, conſiſting of a ſenate and a houſe of repreſentatives; and the executive, to a governor. All theſe are choſen by the people on the firſt Tueſday of October. The governor for three years; but he is not eligible for the next three; he muſt be thirty years old, and have been an inhabitant of the State ſix years, and of the United States twelve years. A plurality of votes makes a choice. The ſenators are choſen for three years, muſt be twenty-ſeven years old, freeholders of 200 acres of land, or poſſeſſed of 100l. property, and have been inhabitants of the State three years. They are divided into three claſſes, the time of one claſs expiring each year, and their ſeats being filled by new elections. The repreſentatives are choſen for one year, muſt be 24 years old, freeholders, and have been inhabitants three years. The conſtitution provides, that there ſhall be ſeven repreſentatives and three ſenators choſen by each county; but the General Aſſembly has power to increaſe the number, where two-thirds of each branch ſhall think it expedient; provided the number of ſenators ſhall never be greater than one half, nor leſs than one third, of the number of repreſentatives. The General Aſſembly meets on the firſt Tueſday of January annually, unleſs ſooner convened by the governor. Each branch has all the powers neceſſary for a branch of the legiſlature of a free and independent State. A majority of each conſtitutes a quorum to do buſineſs, and a leſs number may adjourn from day to day, and compel the attendance of members. They are privileged from arreſts, while attending on public buſineſs, except in caſes of treaſon, felony, and breach of the peace; and for things ſaid in public debate, are not queſtionable elſewhere. They are compenſated out of the public treaſury, from which no money can be drawn but in conſequence of appropriation by law.

law. Impeachments are made by the Lower Houſe, and tried by the Senate. Revenue bills originate in the Houſe of Repreſentatives, but the Senate may propoſe alterations. A journal is kept of their proceedings, and publiſhed at the end of every ſeſſion, and the doors of both houſes are kept open unleſs the buſineſs require ſecrecy. The governor is commander in chief of the military force; may remit fines and forfeitures, and grant reprieves and pardons, except in caſes of impeachment; may require information from all executive officers, may convene the General Aſſembly on extraordinary occaſions, and adjourn them to any time not exceeding three months, when they cannot agree on the time themſelves. He muſt inform them of affairs concerning the State, recommend to them ſuch meaſures as he ſhall judge expedient, and ſee that the laws are faithfully executed. The ſpeaker of the Senate, and after him, the ſpeaker of the Houſe of Repreſentatives, ſhall exerciſe the office of governor, in caſe of vacancy. The judicial power is veſted in a court of chancery, and ſeveral common law courts. The judges are appointed by the governor, and commiſſioned during good behaviour, and the juſtices of the peace for ſeven years; all removeable on the addreſs of two thirds of both houſes of Aſſembly. The other officers of the State are appointed, ſome by the governor, ſome by the General Aſſembly, and ſome by the people. No perſon concerned in any army or navy contract, or holding any office, except the attorney-general, officers uſually appointed by the courts of juſtice, attornies at law, and officers in the militia, can be a ſenator, or repreſentative. The governor can hold no other office. No federal officer can hold an office in this State to which a ſalary is by law annexed. The clergy are excluded from all civil offices. All officers are impeachable and are bound by oath or affirmation to ſupport the conſtitution and perform the duties of their office. All free white men, twenty-one years old, having been two years inhabitants, and paid taxes, are electors; and are privileged from arreſts in civil actions while attending elections. The General Aſſembly, with the approbation of the governor, have a right under certain regulations and reſtrictions to make amendments to this conſtitution. A convention may alſo be called where a majority of the people ſhall ſignify their wiſh for it.

The foregoing conſtitution was ratified on the 12th of June, 1792.

History.] The reader will find a well-written ſketch of the hiſtory of this State in the American edition of the Encyclopedia, publiſhing by Thomas Dobſon, in Philadelphia.

TERRITORY N. W. OF THE OHIO.

Situation and Extent.

	Miles.			Square Miles.
Length	900	between	37° and 50° N. Lat.	411,300
Breadth	700		6° and 23° W. Long.	

Boundaries.] THIS extenſive tract of country is bounded north, by part of the northern boundary line of the United States; eaſt, by the lakes and Pennſylvania; ſouth, by the Ohio river; weſt, by the Miſſiſſippi. Mr. Hutchins, the late geographer of the United States, eſtimates that this tract contains 263,040,000 acres, of which 43,040,000 are water; this deducted, there will remain 220,000,000 of

of acres, belonging to the federal government, to be ſold for the diſcharge of the national debt; except a narrow ſtrip of land bordering on the ſouth of Lake Erie, and ſtretching 120 miles weſt of the weſtern limit of Pennſylvania, which belongs to Connecticut.

But a ſmall proportion of theſe lands is yet purchaſed of the natives, and to be diſpoſed of by Congreſs. Beginning on the meridian line, which forms the weſtern boundary of Pennſylvania, ſeven ranges of townſhips have been ſurveyed and laid off by order of Congreſs. As a north and ſouth line ſtrikes the Ohio in an oblique direction, the termination of the ſeventh range falls upon that river, nine miles above the Muſkingum, which is the firſt large river that falls into the Ohio. It forms the junction 172 miles below Fort Pitt, including the windings of the Ohio, though in a direct line is but ninety miles.

The lands in which the Indian title is extinguiſhed, and which are now purchaſing under the United States, are defined within the limits mentioned page 124, to which the reader is referred. On theſe lands ſeveral ſettlements are commencing, one at Marietta, at the mouth of Muſkingum, under the direction of the Ohio company; another between the Miami rivers, under the direction of Colonel Symmes; and a French ſettlement at Galliopolis. There are ſeveral other tracts delineated on the map, which have been granted by Congreſs to particular companies, and other tracts for particular uſes, which remain without any Engliſh ſettlements.

Civil Divisions.] That part of this territory in which the Indian title is extinguiſhed, and which is ſettling under the government of the United States, is divided into four counties as follows:

Counties.	When erected.	Counties.	When erected.
Waſhington	1788 July 26th	St. Clair	1790 April 27th
Hamilton	1790 Jan. 2d	Knox	1790 June 20th

Theſe counties have been organized with the proper civil and military officers. The county of St. Clair is divided into three diſtricts, viz. the diſtrict of Cahokia, the diſtrict of Prairie-du-rochers, and the diſtrict of Kaſkaſkias. Courts of general quarter ſeſſions of the peace, county courts of common pleas, and courts of probate, to be held in each of theſe diſtricts, as if each was a diſtinct county; the officers of the county to act by deputy, except in the diſtrict where they reſide.

Rivers.] The Muſkingum is a gentle river, confined by banks ſo high as to prevent its overflowing. It is 250 yards wide at its confluence with the Ohio, and navigable by large batteaux and barges to the Three Legs; and by ſmall ones to the lake at its head. From thence, by a portage of about one mile, a communication is opened to Lake Erie, through the Cayahoga, which is a ſtream of great utility, navigable the whole length without any obſtruction from falls. From Lake Erie the avenue is well known to the Hudſon, in the State of New York.

The Hockhocking reſembles the Muſkingum, though ſomewhat inferior in ſize. It is navigable for large boats about ſeventy miles, and for ſmall ones much further. On the banks of this very uſeful ſtream are found inexhauſtible quarries of free-ſtone, large beds of iron ore, and ſome rich mines of lead. Coal mines and ſalt ſprings are frequent in the neighbourhood of this ſtream, as they are in every part of the weſtern territory. The ſalt that may be obtained from thoſe ſprings will afford an inexhauſtible ſtore of that neceſſary article. Beds of white and blue clay, of an excellent quality, are likewiſe found here, ſuitable for the manufacture of glaſs, crockery, and other earthen wares. Red bole and many other uſeful foſſils have been obſerved on the branches of this river.

The

The Scioto is a larger river than either of the preceding, and opens a more extenſive navigation. It is paſſable for large barges for 200 miles, with a portage of only four miles to the Sanduſky, a good navigable ſtream that falls into the Lake Erie. Through the Sanduſky and Scioto lies the moſt common paſs from Canada to the Ohio and Miſſiſſippi; one of the moſt extenſive and uſeful communications that are to be found in any country. Prodigious extenſions of territory are here connected; and, from the rapidity with which the weſtern parts of Canada, Lake Erie, and the Kentucky countries are ſettling, we may anticipate an immenſe intercourſe between them. The lands on the borders of theſe middle ſtreams, from this circumſtance alone, aſide from their natural fertility, muſt be rendered vaſtly valuable. The flour, corn, flax, hemp, &c. raiſed for exportation in that great country between the Lakes Huron and Ontario, will find an outlet through Lake Erie and theſe rivers, or down the Miſſiſſippi. The Ohio merchant can give a higher price than thoſe of Quebec for theſe commodities, as they may be tranſported from the former to Florida and the Weſt India iſlands, with leſs expenſe, riſk, and inſurance, than from the latter; while the expenſe from the place of growth to the Ohio will not be one fourth of what it would be to Quebec, and much leſs than even to the Oneida lake. The ſtream of Scioto is gentle, no where broken by falls: at ſome places, in the ſpring of the year, it overflows its banks, providing for large natural rice plantations. Salt ſprings, coal mines, white and blue clay, and free-ſtone, abound in the country adjoining this river.

The Little Miami is too ſmall for batteaux navigation. Its banks are good land, and ſo high as to prevent, in common, the overflowing of the water.

The Great Miami has a very ſtoney channel, and a ſwift ſtream, but no falls. It is formed of ſeveral large branches, which are paſſable for boats a great diſtance. One branch comes from the weſt, and riſes in the Wabaſh country: another riſes near the head waters of Miami river, which runs into Lake Erie; and a ſhort portage divides another branch of Sanduſky river. It alſo interlocks with the Scioto.

The Wabaſh is a beautiful river, with high and fertile banks. It empties into the Ohio by a mouth 270 yards wide, 1020 miles below Fort Pitt. In the ſpring, ſummer, and autumn, it is paſſable with batteaux drawing three feet water, 412 miles, to Ouitanon, a ſmall French ſettlement, on the weſt ſide of the river; and for large canoes 197 miles further, to the Miami carrying place, nine miles from Miami village. This village ſtands on Miami river, which empties into the ſouth-weſt part of Lake Erie. The communication between Detroit, and the Illinois, and Ohio countries, is up Miami river to Miami village, thence, by land, nine miles, when the rivers are high; and from eighteen to thirty when they are low, through a level country to the Wabaſh, and through the various branches of the Wabaſh to the places of deſtination.

A ſilver mine has been diſcovered about twenty-eight miles above Ouiatanon, on the northern ſide of the Wabaſh. Salt ſprings, lime, free-ſtone, blue, yellow, and white clay, are found in plenty upon this river.

The rivers Avaſe and Kaſkaſkias empty into the Miſſiſſippi from the north-eaſt; the former is navigable for boats ſixty, and the latter about 130 miles. They both run through a rich country, which has extenſive meadows.

Between the Kaſkaſkias and Illinois rivers, which are eighty-four miles apart, is an extenſive tract of level, rich land, which terminates in a high ridge, about fifteen miles before you reach the Illinois river. In this delightful vale are a number of French villages which, together with thoſe of St. Genevieve and St. Louis, on the weſtern ſide of the Miſſiſſippi, contained in 1771, 1273 fencible men.

One

One hundred and ſeventy-ſix miles above the Ohio, and eighteen miles above the Miſſouri, the Illinois empties into the Miſſiſſippi from the north-eaſt by a mouth 400 yards wide. This river is bordered with fine meadows, which in ſome places extend as far as the eye can reach: this river furniſhes a communication with Lake Michigan, by the Chicago river, between which and the Illinois are two portages, the longeſt of which does not exceed four miles. It receives a number of rivers which are from 20 to 100 yards wide, and navigable for boats from 15 to 180 miles. On the north-weſtern ſide of this river is a coal mine, which extends for half a mile along the middle of the bank of the river, and about the ſame diſtance below the coal mine are two ſalt ponds, 100 yards in circumference, and ſeveral feet in depth. The water is ſtagnant, and of a yelloviſh colour; but the French and natives make good ſalt from it. The ſoil of the Illinois country is, in general, of a ſuperior quality: its natural growth conſiſts of oak, hiccory, cedar, mulberry, &c. hops, dying drugs, medicinal plants of ſeveral kinds, and excellent wild grapes. In the year 1769, the French ſettlers made 110 hogſheads of ſtrong wine from theſe grapes.

There are many other rivers of equal ſize and importance with thoſe we have been deſcribing, which are not ſufficiently known for accurate deſcriptions.

POPULATION.] The number of ſouls in this large tract of country has not been aſcertained. From the beſt data the author has received, the population may be eſtimated as follows:

Indians (ſuppoſe) - - -	65,000*	1792.
Ohio Company purchaſe - - -	2,500	do.
Col. Symmes' ſettlements - - -	2,000	do.
Galliopolis, (French ſettlement) oppoſite the Kanhawa river	1,000	do.
Vincennes and its vicinity, on the Wabaſh, - -	1,500	do.
Kaſkaſkias and Cahokia - - -	630	1790.
At Grand Ruiſſeau, village of St. Philip, and Prairie-du-rochers,	240	do.
Total -	72,820	

In 1790, there were in the town of Vincennes about forty American families and thirty-one ſlaves; and on the Miſſiſſippi, forty American families and ſeventy-three ſlaves, all included in the above eſtimate. On the Spaniſh or weſtern ſide of the Miſſiſſippi, there were in 1790, about 1800 ſouls, principally at Genevieve and St. Louis.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, SOIL, AND PRODUCTIONS.] To the remarks on theſe heads, interſperſed in the deſcription of the rivers, we will add ſome obſervations from an anonymous pamphlet publiſhed not long ſince, which we preſume are the moſt authentic, reſpecting the part of that country which has been purchaſed of the Indians, of any that have been given.

"The undiſtinguiſhed terms of admiration that are commonly uſed in ſpeaking of the natural fertility of the country on the weſtern waters of the United States, would render it difficult, without accurate attention in the ſurveys, to aſcribe a preference to any particular part; or to give a juſt deſcription of the territory under conſideration, without the hazard of being ſuſpected of exaggeration: but in *this* we have the united

* The tribes who inhabit this country are the Piantias, on both ſides the Miſſiſſippi; the Caſqueraſquias, on the Illinois; the Piankaſhaws and other tribes, on the Wabaſh; the Shawaneſe, on the Scioto; the Delawares, the Miamis, the Ouiſcons, Maſcontens, Sakies, Sioux, Mekekouakis, the Pilans, Powtowatamis, Meſſaques, Ottawas, Chipewas, and Wiandots. The whole amounting to the above number.

opinion of the geographer, the ſurveyors, and every traveller that has been intimately acquainted with the country, and marked every natural object with the moſt ſcrupulous exactneſs—That no part of the federal territory unites ſo many advantages, in point of health, fertility, variety of production, and foreign intercourſe, as that which ſtretches from the Muſkingum to the Scioto and the great Miami rivers.*

" Colonel Gordon, in his Journal, ſpeaking of a much larger range of country, in which this is included, and makes unqueſtionably the fineſt part, has the following obſervation: The country on the Ohio is every where pleaſant, with large level ſpots of rich land, and remarkably healthy. One general remark of this nature will ſerve for the whole tract of the globe comprehended between the weſtern ſkirts of the Allegany mountains; thence running ſouth-weſtwardly to the diſtance of 500 miles to the Ohio falls; then croſſing them northerly to the heads of the rivers that empty themſelves into the Ohio; thence eaſt along the ridge that ſeparates the lakes and Ohio ſtreams to French Creek: this country may, from a proper knowledge, be affirmed to be the moſt healthy, the moſt pleaſant, the moſt commodious and moſt fertile ſpot of earth, known to the European people.

" The lands on the various ſtreams above-mentioned, which fall into the Ohio, are now more accurately known, and may be deſcribed with confidence and preciſion. They are interſperſed with all the variety of ſoil which conduces to pleaſantneſs of ſituation, and lays the foundation for the wealth of an agricultural and manufacturing people. Large level bottoms, or natural meadows, from twenty to fifty miles in circuit, are every where found bordering the rivers, and variegating the country in the interior parts. Theſe afford as rich a ſoil as can be imagined, and may be reduced to proper cultivation with very little labour. It is ſaid, that in many of theſe bottoms a man may clear an acre a day, fit for planting with Indian corn, there being no underwood; and the trees growing very high and large, but not thick together, need nothing but girdling.

" The prevailing growth of timber, and the more uſeful trees, are, maple or ſugar tree, ſycamore, black and white mulberry, black and white walnut, butternut, cheſnut; white, black, Spaniſh, and cheſnut oaks, hiccory, cherry, buckwood or horſe cheſnut, honey locuſt, elm, cucumber tree, lynn tree, gum tree, iron wood, aſh, aſpin, ſaſſafras, crab apple tree, paupaw or cuſtard apple, a variety of plum trees, nine bark ſpice, and leather-wood buſhes. General Parſons meaſured a black walnut tree near Muſkingum, whoſe circumference, at five feet from the ground, was twenty-two feet. A ſycamore, near the ſame place, meaſured forty-four feet in circumference, at ſome diſtance from the ground. White and black oak, and cheſnut, with moſt of the above-mentioned timbers, grow large and plenty upon the high grounds: both the high and low lands produce vaſt quantities of natural grapes of various kinds, of which the ſettlers univerſally make a ſufficiency for their own conſumption of rich red wine. It is aſſerted in the old ſettlement of St. Vincent, where they have had opportunity to try it, that age will render this wine preferable to moſt of the European wines. Cotton is the natural production of this country, and grows in great perfection.

" The ſugar maple is a moſt valuable tree for an inland country; any number of inhabitants may be for ever ſupplied with a ſufficiency of ſugar, by preſerving a few

* A gentleman who has viſited this country, ſuppoſes this account is a little too highly embelliſhed; he acknowledges that it is a very fine country, but thinks that there are other parts of the weſtern unſettled country, which unite at leaſt as many, if not more advantages, than the tract above mentioned.

trees

trees for the uſe of each family: a tree will yield about ten pounds of ſugar a year, and the labour is very trifling: the ſap is extracted in the months of February and March, and granulated, by the ſimple operation of boiling, to a ſugar equal in flavour and whiteneſs to the beſt Muſcovado.

"Springs of excellent water abound in every part of this territory; and ſmall and large ſtreams, for mills and other purpoſes, are actually interſperſed, as if by art, that there be no deficiency in any of the conveniencies of life.

"Very little waſte land is to be found in any part of this tract of country; there are no ſwamps but ſuch as may be readily drained, and made into arable and meadow land; and though the hills are frequent, they are gentle and ſwelling, no where high or incapable of tillage; they are of a deep, rich ſoil, covered with a heavy growth of timber, and well adapted to the production of wheat, rye, indigo, tobacco, &c.

"The communications between this country and the ſea will be principally in the four following directions:

"1. The route through the Scioto and Muſkingum to Lake Erie, and ſo to the river Hudſon; which has been already deſcribed.

"2. The paſſage up the Ohio and Monongahela to the portage above-mentioned, which leads to the navigable waters of the Patomak; this portage is thirty miles, and will probably be rendered much leſs by the execution of the plans now on foot for opening the navigation of thoſe waters.

"3. The Great Kanhaway, which falls into the Ohio from the Virginia ſhore, between the Hockhocking and the Scioto, opens an extenſive navigation from the ſouth-eaſt, and leaves but eighteen miles portage from the navigable waters of James river in Virginia. This communication for the country between Muſkingum and Scioto, will probably be more uſed than any other for the exportation of manufactures and other light and valuable articles, and eſpecially for the importation of foreign commodities, which may be brought from the Cheſapeak to the Ohio much cheaper than they are now carried from Philadelphia to Carliſle, and the other thick-ſettled back counties of Pennſylvania.*

"4. But the current down the Ohio and Miſſiſſippi, for heavy articles that ſuit the Florida and Weſt India markets, ſuch as corn, flour, beef, lumber, &c. will be more frequently loaded than any ſtreams on earth. The diſtance from the Scioto to the Miſſiſſippi is 800 miles, from thence to the ſea is 900. This whole courſe is eaſily run in fifteen days, and the paſſage up thoſe rivers is not ſo difficult as has uſually been repreſented. It is found, by late experiments, that ſails are uſed to great advantage againſt the current of the Ohio; and it is worthy of obſervation, that in all probability ſteam boats will be found to do infinite ſervice in all our extenſive river navigation.

"The deſign of Congreſs and of the Ohio Company is, that the ſettlements ſhall proceed regularly down the Ohio, and northward to Lake Erie; and it is probable, that not many years will elapſe, before the whole country above Miami will be brought to that degree of cultivation, which will exhibit all its latent beauties, and juſtify thoſe deſcriptions of travellers which have ſo often made it the garden of the world, the ſeat of wealth, and the center of a great empire.

ANIMALS, &c.] "No country is better ſtocked with wild game of every kind; innumerable herds of deer and wild cattle are ſheltered in the groves, and fed in the

* A gentleman of much obſervation, and a great traveller in this country, is of opinion, that this communication or route is chimerical.

extenſive bottoms that every where abound; an unqueſtionable proof of the great fertility of the ſoil: turkies, geeſe, ducks, ſwans, teal, pheaſants, partridges, &c. are, from obſervation, believed to be in greater plenty here, than the tame poultry are in any part of the old ſettlements in America.

"The rivers are well ſtored with fiſh of various kinds, and many of them of an excellent quality. They are generally large, though of different ſizes; the cat fiſh, which is the largeſt, and of a delicious flavour, weighs from ſix to eighty pounds."

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES.] The number of old forts found in the Kentucky country are the admiration of the curious, and a matter of much ſpeculation; they are moſtly of an oblong form, ſituated on ſtrong, well-choſen ground, and contiguous to water: when, by whom, and for what purpoſe theſe were thrown up, is uncertain; they are undoubtedly very ancient, as there is not the leaſt viſible difference in the age or ſize of the timber growing on or within theſe forts, and that which grows without; and the old natives have loſt all tradition reſpecting them. Dr. Cutler, who has accurately examined the trees on theſe forts, and which he thinks, from appearances, are the ſecond growth, is of opinion, that they muſt have been built upwards of 1000 years ago: they muſt have been the efforts of a people much more devoted to labour than our preſent race of Indians; and it is difficult to conceive how they could be conſtructed without the uſe of iron tools. At a convenient diſtance from theſe always ſtands a ſmall mound of earth, thrown up in the form of a pyramid, and ſeems in ſome meaſure proportioned to the ſize of its adjacent fortification. On examination, they have been found to contain a chalky ſubſtance, ſuppoſed to be bones, and of the human kind.

Under this head we may mention the extenſive meadows, or, as the French call them, Prairie, which anſwer to what, in the ſouthern States, are called Savannas; they are a rich plain, without trees, and covered with graſs; ſome of theſe, between St. Vincennes and the Miſſiſſippi, are thirty or forty miles in extent. In paſſing them, as far as the eye can reach, there is not a tree to be ſeen; but there is plenty of deer, wild cattle, bears, and wolves, and innumerable flocks of turkies; theſe, with the green graſs, form a rich and beautiful proſpect.

FORTS.] The poſts eſtabliſhed for the protection of the frontiers are as follow: Franklin, on French Creek; Harmar, at the mouth of Muſkingum; Stuben, at the rapids of the Ohio; Fayette, Hamilton, Knox, Jefferſon, St. Clair, Marietta, and St. Vincennes.

GOVERNMENT, &c.] By an ordinance of Congreſs, paſſed on the 13th of July, 1787, this country, for the purpoſes of temporary government, was erected into one diſtrict, ſubject, however, to a diviſion, when circumſtances ſhall make it expedient.

In the ſame ordinance it is provided, that Congreſs ſhall appoint a governor, whoſe commiſſion ſhall continue in force three years, unleſs ſooner revoked.

The governor muſt reſide in the diſtrict, and have a freehold eſtate therein, in 1000 acres of land, while in the exerciſe of his office.

Congreſs, from time to time, are to appoint a ſecretary, to continue in office four years, unleſs ſooner removed, who muſt reſide in the diſtrict, and have an eſtate of 500 acres of land, while in office.

The buſineſs of the ſecretary is, to keep and preſerve the acts and laws of the legiſlature, and the public records of the diſtrict, and the proceedings of the governor in his executive department; and to tranſmit authentic copies of ſuch acts and proceedings, every ſix months, to the ſecretary of Congreſs.

The

The ordinance provides, that Congreſs ſhall appoint three judges, poſſeſſed each of 500 acres of land in the diſtrict in which they are to reſide, and to hold their commiſſions during good behaviour, any two of whom ſhall form a court, which ſhall have a common law juriſdiction. The governor and judges are authorized to adopt and publiſh in the diſtrict, ſuch laws of the original States, criminal and civil, as may be neceſſary and beſt ſuited to the circumſtances of the diſtrict, and report them to Congreſs; and, if approved, they ſhall continue in force till the organization of the General Aſſembly of the diſtrict, who ſhall have authority to alter them. The governor is to command the militia, and appoint and commiſſion their officers, except general officers, who are to be appointed and commiſſioned by Congreſs.

Previouſly to the organization of the Aſſembly, the governor is to appoint ſuch magiſtrates and civil officers, as ſhall be deemed neceſſary for the preſervation of peace and order.

So ſoon as there ſhall be 5000 free male inhabitants of full age in the diſtrict, they ſhall receive authority to elect repreſentatives, one for every 500 free male inhabitants, to repreſent them in the General Aſſembly; the repreſentation to increaſe progreſſively with the number of free male inhabitants till there be twenty-five repreſentatives; after which, the number and proportion of the repreſentatives ſhall be regulated by the legiſlature. A repreſentative muſt poſſeſs, in fee ſimple, 200 acres of land, and be a reſident in the diſtrict; and muſt have been a citizen of the United States, or a reſident in the diſtrict, three years preceding his election. An elector muſt have fifty acres of land in the diſtrict, muſt have been a citizen of one of the States, and muſt be a reſident in the diſtrict, or muſt poſſeſs the ſame freehold, and have been two years a reſident in the diſtrict. The repreſentatives, when duly elected, are to continue in office two years.

The General Aſſembly, or Legiſlature, ſhall conſiſt of the governor, legiſlative council, and houſe of repreſentatives. The legiſlative council ſhall conſiſt of five members, to continue in office five years, unleſs ſooner removed by Congreſs; three make a quorum. The council are to be thus appointed: the governor and repreſentatives, when met, ſhall nominate ten perſons, reſidents in the diſtrict, and each poſſeſſed of a freehold in 500 acres of land, and return their names to Congreſs, who ſhall appoint and commiſſion five of them to ſerve as aforeſaid.

All bills paſſed by a majority in the houſe, and in council, ſhall be referred to the governor for his aſſent; but no bill, or legiſlative act whatever, ſhall be of force without his aſſent. The governor ſhall have power to convene, prorogue, and diſſolve the General Aſſembly, when, in his opinion, it ſhall be expedient.

The legiſlature, when organized, ſhall have authority, by joint ballot, to elect a delegate to Congreſs, who ſhall have a ſeat in Congreſs, with a right of debating, but but not of voting, during this temporary government.

"And for extending the fundamental principles of civil and religious liberty, which form the baſis whereon theſe republics, their laws and conſtitutions, are erected; to fix and eſtabliſh thoſe principles as the baſis of all laws, conſtitutions, and governments, which for ever hereafter ſhall be formed in the ſaid territory; to provide alſo for the eſtabliſhment of ſtate and permanent government therein, and for their admiſſion to ſhare in the federal councils on an equal footing with the original States, at as early periods as may be conſiſtent with the general intereſt:

"It is hereby ordained and declared, by the authority aforeſaid, That the following articles ſhall be conſidered as articles of compact, between the original States and the people, and States in the ſaid territory, and for ever remain unalterable, unleſs by common conſent, to wit:

"Article

"Article 1ſt. No perſon, demeaning himſelf in a peaceable and orderly manner, ſhall ever be moleſted on account of his mode of worſhip or religious ſentiments in the ſaid territory.

"Article 2d. The inhabitants of the ſaid territory ſhall always be entitled to the benefits of the writ of habeas corpus, and of the trial by jury, of a proportionate repreſentation of the people in the legiſlature, and of judicial proceedings, according to the courſe of the common law: all perſons ſhall be bailable unleſs for capital offences, where the proof ſhall be evident, or the preſumption great: all fines ſhall be moderate, and no cruel or unuſual puniſhment ſhall be inflicted; no man ſhall be deprived of his liberty or property but by the judgement of his peers, or of the law of the land; and ſhould the public exigencies make it neceſſary for the common preſervation to take any perſon's property, or to demand his particular ſervices, full compenſation ſhall be made for the ſame; and in the juſt preſervation of the rights and property, it is underſtood and declared, that no law ought ever to be made, or have force in the ſaid territory, that ſhall in any manner whatever interfere with, or affect private contracts or engagements *bona fide*, and without fraud previouſly formed.

"Article 3d. Religion, morality, and knowledge, being neceſſary to good government and the happineſs of mankind, ſchools and the means of education ſhall for ever be encouraged; the utmoſt good faith ſhall always be obſerved towards the Indians; their lands and property ſhall never be taken from them without their conſent; and in their property, rights, and liberty, they ſhall never be invaded or diſturbed, unleſs in juſt and lawful wars authorized by Congreſs; but laws founded in juſtice and humanity ſhall from time to time be made, for preventing wrongs being done to them, and for preſerving peace and friendſhip with them.

"Article 4th. The ſaid territory, and the States which may be formed therein, ſhall for ever remain a part of this confederacy of the United States of America, ſubject to the articles of confederation, and to ſuch alterations therein as ſhall be conſtitutionally made; and to all the acts and ordinances of the United States, in Congreſs aſſembled, conformable thereto. The inhabitants and ſettlers in the ſaid territory ſhall be ſubject to pay a part of the federal debts contracted, or to be contracted, and a proportionable part of the expences of government, to be apportioned on them by Congreſs, according to the ſame common rule and meaſure, by which apportionments thereof ſhall be made on the other States, and the taxes for paying their proportion, ſhall be laid and levied by the authority and direction of the legiſlatures of the diſtrict, or diſtricts, or new ſtates, as in the original States, within the time agreed upon by the United States in Congreſs aſſembled. The legiſlatures of thoſe diſtricts, or new ſtates ſhall never interfere with the primary diſpoſal of the ſoil by the United States, in Congreſs aſſembled, nor with any regulations Congreſs may find neceſſary for ſecuring the title in ſuch ſoil to the *bona fide* purchaſers. No tax ſhall be impoſed on lands the property of the United States; and in no caſe ſhall non-reſident proprietors be taxed higher than reſidents. The navigable waters leading into the Miſſiſſippi and St. Lawrence, and the carrying places between the ſame, ſhall be common highways, and for ever free, as well to the inhabitants of the ſaid territory, as to the citizens of the United States, and thoſe of any other States that may be admitted into the confederacy, without any tax, impoſt, or duty, therefor.

"Article 5th. There ſhall be formed in the ſaid territory, not leſs than three, nor more than five States; and the boundaries of the States, as ſoon as Virginia ſhall alter her act of ceſſion, and conſent to the ſame, ſhall become fixed and eſtabliſhed as follows, viz. The weſtern State in the ſaid territory ſhall be bounded on the Miſſiſſippi,

the Ohio, and Wabaſh rivers; a direct line drawn from the Wabaſh and Poſt Vincents due north to the territorial line between the United States and Canada, and by the ſaid territorial line to the lake of the Woods and the Miſſiſſippi. The middle State ſhall be bounded by the ſaid direct line, the Wabaſh from Poſt Vincents to the Ohio; by the Ohio by a direct line drawn due north from the mouth of the Great Miami to the ſaid territorial line, and by the ſaid territorial line. The eaſtern State ſhall be bounded by the laſt-mentioned direct line, the Ohio, Pennſylvania, and the ſaid territorial line: Provided however, and it is further underſtood and declared, that the boundaries of theſe three States ſhall be ſubject ſo far to be altered, that if Congreſs hereafter ſhall find it expedient, they ſhall have authority to form one, or two States, in that part of the ſaid territory which lies north of an eaſt and weſt line drawn through the ſoutherly bend or extreme of Lake Michigan; and when any of the ſaid States ſhall have 60,000 free inhabitants therein, ſuch State ſhall be admitted by its delegates into the Congreſs of the United States, on an equal footing with the original States in all reſpects whatever; and ſhall be at liberty to form a permanent conſtitution and ſtate government: Provided the conſtitution and government ſo to be formed ſhall be republican, and in conformity to the principles contained in theſe articles; and ſo far as it can be conſiſtent with the general intereſt of the confederacy, ſuch admiſſion ſhall be allowed at an earlier period, and when there may be a leſs number of free inhabitants in the State than 60,000.

"Article 6th. There ſhall be neither ſlavery nor involuntary ſervitude in the ſaid territory, otherwiſe than in the puniſhment of crimes, whereof the party ſhall have been duly convicted: Provided always, that any perſon eſcaping into the ſame, from whom labour or ſervice is lawfully claimed in any of the original States, ſuch fugitive may be lawfully reclaimed, and conveyed to the perſon claiming his or her labour or ſervice as aforeſaid."

Such is the preſent government of the Weſtern Territory, and ſuch the political obligations of the adventurers into this fertile and delightful part of the United States.

In the ordinance of Congreſs, for the government of this territory, it is provided, that after the ſaid territory acquires a certain degree of population, it ſhall be divided into States. The eaſtern State, that is thus provided to be made, is bounded on the Great Miami on the weſt, and by the Pennſylvania line on the eaſt. The center of this State will fall between the Scioto and the Hockhocking. At the mouth of one of theſe rivers will probably be the ſeat of government for this State; and, if we may indulge the ſublime contemplation of beholding the whole territory of the United States ſettled by an enlightened people, and continued under one extended government, on the river Ohio, and not far from this ſpot, will be the ſeat of empire for the whole dominion. This is central to the whole; it will beſt accommodate every part; it is the moſt pleaſant, and probably the moſt healthful.

The ſettlement of this country has been checked, for ſeveral years paſt, by the unhappy Indian war, an amicable termination of which, it is ardently wiſhed, might ſpeedily take place.

SOUTHERN

SOUTHERN STATES.

The THIRD, *and much the largeſt* GRAND DIVISION *of the* UNITED STATES *comprehends*

MARYLAND,	TERRITORY SOUTH of OHIO,
VIRGINIA,	SOUTH CAROLINA, and
KENTUCKY,	GEORGIA.
NORTH CAROLINA,	

THIS extenſive diviſion is bounded north by Pennſylvania and the Ohio river; weſt by the Miſſiſſippi; ſouth by Eaſt and Weſt Florida; eaſt by the Atlantic ocean and the Delaware State. It is interſected in a N. E. and S. W. direction, by the range of Allegany mountains, which give riſe to many noble rivers, which fall either into the Atlantic on the eaſt, or the Miſſiſſippi on the weſt. From the ſea coaſt, ſixty, eighty, and in ſome parts 100 miles back towards the mountains, the country, generally ſpeaking, is nearly a dead level, and a very large proportion of it is covered, in its natural ſtate, with pitch pines. In the neighbourhood of ſtagnant waters, which abound in this level country, the inhabitants are ſickly. In the back, hilly, and mountainous country, they are as healthy as in any part of America.

This diſtrict of the Union contains upwards of one million nine hundred thouſand inhabitants, of whom 648,439 are ſlaves, which is *thirteen fourteenths* of the whole number of ſlaves in the United States. The influence of ſlavery has produced a very diſtinguiſhing feature in the general character of the inhabitants, which, though now diſcernible to their diſadvantage, has been ſoftened and meliorated by the benign effects of the revolution, and the progreſs of liberty and humanity.

The following may be conſidered as the principal productions of this diviſion; tobacco, rice, indigo, wheat, corn, cotton, tar, pitch, turpentine, and lumber.

In this diſtrict is fixed the permanent ſeat of the general government.

MARYLAND.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.			Square Miles.
Length	134	between	37° 56′ and 39° 44′ N. Lat.	14,000 one fourth of which is water.
Breadth	110		0° and 4° 30′ W. Lon.	

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED north, by Pennſylvania; eaſt, by Delaware State and the Atlantic ocean; ſouth and weſt, by Virginia.

CIVIL DIVISIONS AND POPULATION.] This State is divided into nineteen counties, eleven of which are on the *Weſtern*, and eight on the *Eaſtern* ſhore of Cheſapeak bay.

Counties.

	Counties.	No. Inhabitants.
Weſtern Shore.	Hartford	14,976
	Baltimore	25,434
	Do. Town & Precincts	13,503
	Ann Arundel	22,598
	Frederick	30,791
	Allegany	4,809
	Waſhington	15,822
	Montgomery	18,003
	Prince George	21,344
	Calvert	8,652
	Charles	20,613
	St. Mary's	15,544
	Total	212,089

	Counties.	No. Inhabitants.
Eaſtern Shore.	Cecil	13,625
	Kent	12,836
	Queen Ann	15,463
	Caroline	9,506
	Talbot	13,084
	Somerſet	15,610
	Dorcheſter	15,875
	Worceſter	11,640
	Eaſtern Shore	107,639
	Weſtern Shore	212,089
	Total in the State	319,728

Number of Slaves in the State 103,036.

Each of the counties ſends four repreſentatives to the houſe of delegates, beſides which the city of Annapolis, and town of Baltimore, ſend each two.

BAYS AND RIVERS.] Cheſapeak bay, as we have already hinted, divides this State into the eaſtern and weſtern diviſions. This bay, which is the largeſt in the United States, was particularly deſcribed in the general account of the United States. It affords many good fiſheries, and is remarkable for the excellence of its crabs, and alſo for a particular ſpecies of wild duck, called "canvas back." In a commercial view, it is of immenſe advantage to the State; it receives a number of large rivers. From the eaſtern ſhore in Maryland, among other ſmaller ones, it receives Pocomoke, Nantikoke, Choptank, Cheſter, and Elk rivers. From the north, the rapid Suſquehannah; and from the weſt, Patapſco, Severn, Patuxent, and Patomak, half of which is in Maryland, and half in Virginia. Except the Suſquehannah and Patomak, theſe are ſmall rivers. Patapſco river is but about thirty or forty yards wide at the ferry, juſt before it empties into the baſon upon which Baltimore ſtands; its ſource is in York county in Pennſylvania; its courſe is ſouthwardly till it reaches Elkridge landing, about eight miles weſtward of Baltimore; it then turns eaſtward, in a broad bay-like ſtream, by Baltimore, which it leaves on the north, and paſſes into the Cheſapeak.

The entrance into Baltimore harbour, about a mile below Fell's Point, is hardly piſtol ſhot acroſs, and of courſe may be eaſily defended againſt naval force.

Severn is a ſhort, inconſiderable river, paſſing by Annapolis, which it leaves to the ſouth, emptying, by a broad mouth, into the Cheſapeak.

Patuxent is a larger river than the Patapſco; it riſes in Ann Arundel county, and runs ſouth-eaſtwardly, and then eaſt into the bay, fifteen or twenty miles north of the mouth of Patomak. There are ſeveral ſmall rivers, ſuch as Wighcocomico, Eaſtern Branch, Monocaſy, and Conegocheague, which empty into Patomak river from the Maryland ſide.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCTIONS.] Eaſt of the blue ridge of mountains, which ſtretches acroſs the weſtern part of this State, the land, like that in all the ſouthern States, is generally level and free of ſtones; and appears to have been made much in the ſame way; of courſe the ſoil muſt be ſimilar, and the natural growth not remarkably different.

The ground is uniformly level and low in moſt of the counties on the eaſtern ſhore, and conſequently covered in many places with ſtagnant water, except where it is interſected by numerous creeks. Here alſo are large tracts of marſh, which, during the day, load the atmoſphere with vapour, that falls in dew in the cloſe of the ſummer and fall ſeaſons, which are ſickly. The ſpring and ſummer are moſt healthy.

The ſoil of the good land in Maryland is of ſuch a nature and quality as to produce from twelve to ſixteen buſhels of wheat, or from twenty to thirty buſhels of Indian corn per acre. Ten buſhels of wheat, and fifteen buſhels of corn per acre, may be the annual average crops in the State at large.

Wheat and tobacco are the ſtaple commodities. Tobacco is generally cultivated in ſets, by negroes, in the following manner: The ſeed is ſown in beds of fine mould, and tranſplanted the beginning of May; the plants are ſet at the diſtance of three or four feet from each other, and are hilled and kept continually free of weeds: when as many leaves have ſhot out as the ſoil will nouriſh to advantage, the top of the plant is broken off, which prevents its growing higher: it is carefully kept clear of worms, and the ſuckers, which put out between the leaves, are taken off at proper times, till the plant arrives at perfection, which is in Auguſt: when the leaves turn of a browniſh colour, and begin to be ſpotted, the plant is cut down and hung up to dry, after having ſweat in heaps one night. When it can be handled without crumbling, which is alway in moiſt weather, the leaves are ſtripped from the ſtalk, and tied in bundles, and packed for exportation in hogſheads containing 800 or 900 pounds. No ſuckers nor ground leaves are allowed to be merchantable. An induſtrious perſon may manage 6000 plants of tobacco, (which yield 1000lb.) and four acres of Indian corn.

In the interior country, on the uplands, conſiderable quantities of hemp and flax are raiſed. As long ago as 1751, in the month of October, no leſs than ſixty waggons, loaded with flax-ſeed, came down to Baltimore from the back country.

Two articles are ſaid to be peculiar to Maryland, viz. the genuine *white* wheat, which grows in Kent, Queen Ann's and Talbot counties, on the eaſtern ſhore, and which degenerates in other places, and the bright *kite's foot* tobacco, which is produced at Elkridge, on the Patuxent, on the weſtern ſhore.

Among other kinds of timber is the oak, of ſeveral kinds, which is of a ſtraight grain, and eaſily rives into ſtaves, for exportation. The black walnut is in demand for cabinets, tables, and other furniture. The apples of this State are large, but mealy; their peaches plenty and good: from theſe the inhabitants diſtil cyder, brandy, and peach brandy.

The foreſts abound with nuts of various kinds, which are collectively called *maſt*; on this maſt vaſt numbers of ſwine are fed, which run wild in the woods: theſe ſwine, when fatted, are caught, killed, barrelled, and exported in great quantities. This traffic formerly was carried on to a very conſiderable extent; Douglas ſays, that "in the year 1733, which was a good maſting year, one gentleman, a planter and merchant in Virginia, ſalted up 3000 barrels of pork."

POPULATION AND CHARACTER.] The population of this State is exhibited in the foregoing table: by that it appears, that the number of inhabitants in the State, including the negroes, is 319,728, which is nearly twenty-three for every ſquare mile. The inhabitants, except in the populous towns, live on their plantations, often ſeveral miles diſtant from each other. To an inhabitant of the middle, and eſpecially of the eaſtern States, which are thickly populated, they appear to live very retired and unſocial lives. The effects of this comparative ſolitude are viſible in the countenances,

as

as well as in the manners and dreſs of many of the country people. You obſerve comparatively little of that cheerful ſprightlineſs of look and action, which is the invariable and genuine offſpring of ſocial intercourſe; nor do you find that attention paid to dreſs which is common, and which decency and propriety have rendered neceſſary among people who are liable to receive company almoſt every day: unaccuſtomed, in a great meaſure, to frequent and friendly viſits, they often ſuffer too much negligence in their dreſs. As the negroes perform all the manual labour, their maſters are left to ſaunter away life in ſloth, and too often in ignorance. Theſe obſervations, however, muſt, in juſtice, be limited to the people in the country, and to thoſe particularly whoſe poverty or parſimony prevents their ſpending a part of their time in populous towns, or otherwiſe mingling with the world; and with theſe limitations, they will equally apply to all the ſouthern States. The inhabitants of the populous towns, and thoſe from the country who have intercourſe with them, are, in their manners and cuſtoms, genteel and agreeable.

That pride which grows on ſlavery, and is habitual to thoſe who, from their infancy, are taught to believe and to feel their ſuperiority, is a viſible characteriſtic of the inhabitants of Maryland; but with this characteriſtic we muſt not fail to connect that of hoſpitality to ſtrangers, which is equally univerſal and obvious. Many of the women poſſeſs all the amiable, and many of the elegant accompliſhments of their ſex.

The inhabitants are made up of various nations of many different religious ſentiments; few general obſervations, therefore, of a characteriſtical kind will apply: it may be ſaid, however, with great truth, that they are in general very federal, and friends to good government. They owe little money as a State, and are willing and able to diſcharge their debts: their credit is very good; and although they have ſo great a proportion of ſlaves, yet a number of influential gentlemen have evinced their humanity and their diſpoſition to aboliſh ſo diſreputable a traffic, by forming themſelves into a ſociety for the abolition of negro ſlavery.

CHIEF TOWNS.] ANNAPOLIS (city) is the capital of Maryland, and the wealthieſt town of its ſize in America: it is ſituated at the mouth of Severn river, on a healthy ſpot, 30 miles ſouth of Baltimore: it is a place of little note in the commercial world. The houſes, about 260 in number, are generally large and elegant, indicative of great wealth: the number of inhabitants does not exceed 2000. The deſign of thoſe who planned the city was to have the whole in the form of a circle, with the ſtreets like radii, beginning at the center where the State Houſe ſtands; and thence diverging in every direction. The principal part of the buildings are arranged agreeably to this aukward plan. The State Houſe is an elegant building.

BALTIMORE has had the moſt rapid growth of any town on the continent, and is the fourth in ſize and the fifth in trade in the United States.* It lies in latitude 39° 21′, on the north ſide of Patapſco river, around what is called the Baſon, in which the water, at common tides, is about five or ſix feet deep. Baltimore is divided into the town and Fell's point by a creek, over which are two bridges; but the houſes extend, in a ſparſe ſituation, from one to the other. At Fell's point the water is deep enough for ſhips of burden; but ſmall veſſels only go up to the town. The ſituation of the town is low, and was formerly unhealthy; but the increaſe of houſes, and, of courſe, of ſmoke, the tendency of which is to deſtroy or to diſpel damp and unwholeſome vapours, and the improvements that have been made, particularly that of paving the ſtreets, have

* In point of ſize, the towns in the United States may be ranked in this order— Philadelphia, New York, Boſton, Baltimore, Charleſtown, &c. In point of trade, New York, Philadelphia, Boſton, Charleſtown, Baltimore, &c.

rendered it tolerably healthy. The houſes were numbered in 1787, and found to be 1955; about 1200 of which were in the town, and the reſt at Fell's point: the preſent number is about 2300. The number of warehouſes and ſtores is 164, and of churches nine, which belong to German Calviniſts and Lutherans, Epiſcopalians, Preſbyterians, Roman Catholics, Baptiſts, Methodiſts, Quakers, Nicolites, or New Quakers. The number of inhabitants in the town and precincts, according to the cenſus of 1790, was 13,503. There are many very reſpectable families in Baltimore who live genteelly, are hoſpitable to ſtrangers, and maintain a friendly and improving intercourſe with each other; but the bulk of the inhabitants, recently collected from almoſt all quarters of the world, bent on the purſuit of wealth, varying in their habits, their manners and their religions, have yet their general character to form.

Market-ſtreet is the principal ſtreet in the town, and runs nearly eaſt and weſt a mile in length, parallel with the water: this is croſſed by ſeveral other ſtreets leading from the water, a number of which, particularly Calvert, South, and Gay-ſtreets, are well built. North and eaſt of the town the land riſes and affords a fine proſpect of the town and bay. Belvidera, the ſeat of Colonel Howard, exhibits a fine landſcape—the town—the point—the ſhipping, both in the baſon and at Fell's point—the bay, as far as the eye can reach—riſing ground on the right and left of the harbour—a grove of trees on the declivity at the right—a ſtream of water breaking over the rocks at the foot of the hill on the left—all conſpire to complete the beauty and grandeur of the proſpect.

Georgetown ſtands on the bank of the River Patomak, about 160 miles from its entrance into Cheſapeak Bay. The ground on which it ſtands is very broken, being a cluſter of little hills, which, though at preſent elevated conſiderably above the ſurface of the river, were, probably, at ſome former period overflowed, as at the depth of eight or ten feet below the ſurface marine ſhells have been found. Dr. Martin concludes an account of the climate and diſeaſes of this town, in the following words:

"Upon the whole, Georgetown and its vicinity may be conſidered as a healthy part of America; and in any diſputes about the propriety of the ſeat of the general government being fixed here, no objection can be urged againſt it on account of its diſeaſes."

Fredericktown is a fine flouriſhing inland town, of upwards of 300 houſes, built principally of brick and ſtone, and moſtly on one broad ſtreet: it is ſituated in a fertile country, about four miles ſouth of Catokton mountain, and is a place of conſiderable trade: it has four places for public worſhip; one for Preſbyterians, two for Dutch Lutherans and Calviniſts, and one for Baptiſts; beſides a public gaol and a brick market-houſe.

Hagarstown is but little inferior to Fredericktown, and is ſituated in the beautiful and well-cultivated valley of Conegocheague, and carries on a conſiderable trade with the weſtern country.

Ellton is ſituated near the head of Cheſapeak bay, on a ſmall river which bears the name of the town. It enjoys great advantages from the carrying-trade between Baltimore and Philadelphia. The tides ebb and flow to this town.

The city of Washington, in the territory of Columbia, was ceded, by the States of Virginia and Maryland, to the United States, and by them eſtabliſhed as the ſeat of their government, after the year 1800. This city, which is now building, ſtands at the junction of the rivers Patomak and the Eaſtern branches, latitude 38° 53′ north, extending nearly four miles up each, and including a tract of territory, exceeded, in point of convenience, ſalubrity, and beauty, by none in America; for although the land in general appears level, yet, by gentle and gradual ſwellings, a variety of elegant proſpects are produced, and a ſufficient deſcent formed for conveying

off the water occaſioned by rain. Within the limits of the city are a great number of excellent ſprings; and by digging wells, water of the beſt quality may readily be had. Beſides, the never-failing ſtreams, that now run through that territory, may alſo be collected for the uſe of the city. The waters of Reedy branch and of Tiber creek may be conveyed to the Preſident's houſe. The ſource of Tiber creek is elevated about 236 feet above the level of the tide in ſaid creek. The perpendicular height of the ground on which the capital is to ſtand, is 78 feet above the level of the tide in Tiber creek: the water of Tiber creek may, therefore, be conveyed to the capital, and, after watering that part of the city, may be deſtined to other uſeful purpoſes.

The Eaſtern branch is one of the ſafeſt and moſt commodious harbours in America, being ſufficiently deep for the largeſt ſhips for about four miles above its mouth, while the channel lies cloſe along the bank adjoining the city, and affords a large and convenient harbour. The Patomak, although only navigable for ſmall craft, for a conſiderable diſtance from its banks next to the city (excepting about half a mile above the junction of the rivers) will nevertheleſs afford a capacious ſummer harbour; as an immenſe number of ſhips may ride in the great channel, oppoſite to and below the city.

The ſituation of this metropolis is upon the great poſt road, equi-diſtant from the northern and ſouthern extremities of the Union, and nearly ſo from the Atlantic and Pittſburg, upon the beſt navigation, and in the midſt of a commercial territory, probably the richeſt, and commanding the moſt extenſive internal reſources of any in America. It has therefore many advantages to recommend it, as an eligible place for the permanent ſeat of the general government; and as it is likely to be ſpeedily built, and otherwiſe improved, by the public-ſpirited enterprize of the people of the United States, and even by foreigners, it may be expected to grow up with a degree of rapidity hitherto unparalleled in the annals of cities.

The plan of this city appears to contain ſome important improvements upon that of the beſt planned cities in the world, combining, in a remarkable degree, convenience, regularity, elegance of proſpect, and a free circulation of air. The poſitions for the different public edifices, and for the ſeveral ſquares and areas of different ſhapes as they are laid down, were firſt determined on the moſt advantageous ground, commanding the moſt extenſive proſpects, and from their ſituation, ſuſceptible of ſuch improvements as either uſe or ornament may hereafter require. The Capitol will be ſituated on a moſt beautiful eminence, commanding a complete view of every part of the city, and of a conſiderable part of the country around. The Preſident's houſe will ſtand on a riſing ground, poſſeſſing a delightful water proſpect, together with a commanding view of the Capitol, and the moſt material parts of the city. Lines, or avenues, of direct communication, have been deviſed to connect the moſt diſtant and important objects. Theſe tranſverſe avenues, or diagonal ſtreets, are laid out on the moſt advantageous ground for proſpect and convenience, and are calculated not only to produce a variety of charming proſpects, but greatly to facilitate the communication throughout the city. North and ſouth lines, interſected by others running due eaſt and weſt, make the diſtribution of the city into ſtreets, ſquares, &c. and thoſe lines have been ſo combined as to meet at certain given points, with the divergent avenues, ſo as to form, on the ſpaces *firſt determined*, the different ſquares or areas. The grand avenues, and ſuch ſtreets as lead immediately to public places, are from 130 to 160 feet wide, and may be conveniently divided into footways, a walk planted with trees on each ſide, and a paved way for carriages. The other ſtreets are from 90 to 110 feet wide.

In order to execute this plan, Mr. Ellicott drew a true meridional line by celeſtial obſervation, which paſſes through the area intended for the Capitol. This line he croſſed

croſſed by another, running due eaſt and weſt, which paſſes through the ſame area. Theſe lines were accurately meaſured, and made the baſes on which the whole plan was executed. He ran all the lines by a tranſit inſtrument, and determined the acute angles by actual meaſurement, leaving nothing to the uncertainty of the compaſs.

MINES AND MANUFACTURES.] Mines of iron ore, of a ſuperior quality, abound in many parts of the State. Furnaces for running this ore into pigs and hollow ware, and forges to refine pig iron into bars, are numerous, and worked to great extent and profit. This is the only manufacture of importance carried on in the State, except it be that of wheat into flour and curing tobacco.

TRADE.] The trade of Maryland is principally carried on from Baltimore, with the other States, with the Weſt Indies, and with ſome parts of Europe. To theſe places they ſend annually about 30,000 hogſheads of tobacco, beſides large quantities of wheat, flour, pig iron, lumber, and corn; beans, pork, and flax ſeed in ſmaller quantities; and receive in return, clothing for themſelves and negroes, and other dry goods, wines, ſpirits, ſugars, and other Weſt India commodities. The balance is generally in their favour.

			Dols.	Cts.
The total amount of exports from Baltimore from Oct. 1, 1789, to Sept. 30, 1790, was	—	—	2,027,777	64
Value of imports for the ſame time	—	—	1,945,899	55
Exports from Oct. 1, 1790, to Sept. 30, 1791	—	—	3,131,227	55

During the laſt mentioned period, the quantity of wheat exported was 205,571 buſhels; Indian corn, 205,643 ditto; buck wheat, 4,286 ditto; peas, 10,619 ditto; beſides 151,445 barrels of wheat flour; 4,325 ditto, Indian meal; 6,761 ditto, bread; and 3,104 kegs of crackers.

RELIGION.] The Roman Catholics, who were the firſt ſettlers in Maryland, are the moſt numerous religious ſect. Beſides theſe, there are Proteſtant Epiſcopalians, Engliſh, Scotch, and Iriſh Preſbyterians, German Calviniſts, German Lutherans, Friends, Baptiſts, Methodiſts, Mennoniſts, Nicolites, or new Quakers; who all enjoy liberty of conſcience.

SEMINARIES OF LEARNING, &c.] Waſhington academy, in Somerſet county, was inſtituted by law in 1779: it was founded and is ſupported by voluntary ſubſcriptions and private donations, and is authorized to receive gifts and legacies, and to hold 2000 acres of land. A ſupplement to the law, paſſed in 1784, increaſed the number of truſtees from eleven to fifteen.

In 1782, a college was inſtituted at Cheſtertown, in Kent county, and was honoured with the name of WASHINGTON COLLEGE, after Preſident Waſhington. It is under the management of 24 viſitors or governors, with power to ſupply vacancies and hold eſtates, whoſe yearly value ſhall not exceed 6000l. current money. By a law enacted in 1787, a permanent fund was granted to this inſtitution of 1250l. a year, currency, out of the monies ariſing from marriage licenſes, fines, and forfeitures on the Eaſtern ſhore.

St. John's College was inſtituted in 1784, to have alſo 24 truſtees, with power to keep up the ſucceſſion by ſupplying vacancies, and to receive an annual income of 9000l. A permanent fund is aſſigned this college, of 1750l. a year, out of the monies ariſing from marriage licenſes, ordinary licenſes, fines and forfeitures, on the weſtern ſhore. This college is to be at Annapolis, where a building is now prepared for it. Very liberal ſubſcriptions were obtained towards founding and carrying on theſe ſeminaries. The two colleges conſtitute one univerſity, by the name of "the Univerſity of Maryland," whereof the governor of the State for the time being is chancellor, and the

the principal of one of them, vice-chancellor, either by ſeniority or by election, as may hereafter be provided for by rule or by law. The chancellor is empowered to call a meeting of the truſtees, or a repreſentation of ſeven of each, and two of the members of the faculty of each, (the principal being one) which meeting is ſtiled, "The Convocation of the Univerſity of Maryland," who are to frame the laws, preſerve uniformity of manners and literature in the colleges, confer the higher degrees, determine appeals, &c.

The Roman Catholics have alſo erected a college at Georgetown, on Patomak river, for the promotion of general literature.

In 1785, the Methodiſts inſtituted a college at Abingdon, in Harford county, by the name of Cokeſbury College, after Thomas Coke, and Francis Aſhbury, biſhops of the Methodiſt Epiſcopal Church. The college edifice is of brick, handſomely built, on a healthy ſpot, enjoying a fine air, and a very extenſive proſpect.

The ſtudents, who are to conſiſt of the ſons of travelling preachers, the ſons of annual ſubſcribers, the ſons of the members of the Methodiſt ſociety and orphans, are inſtructed in Engliſh, Latin, Greek, Logic, Rhetoric, Hiſtory, Geography, Natural Philoſophy and Aſtronomy; and when the finances of the college will admit, they are to be taught the Hebrew, French, and German languages.

The college was erected and is ſupported wholly by ſubſcription and voluntary donations.

The ſtudents have regular hours for riſing, for prayers, for their meals, for ſtudy, and for recreation: they are all to be in bed preciſely at nine o'clock. Their recreations, (for they are to be "indulged in nothing which the world calls *play*") are gardening, walking, riding, and bathing, without doors; and within doors, the carpenters, joiners, cabinet-makers, or turner's buſineſs. Suitable proviſion is made for theſe ſeveral occupations, which are to be conſidered, not as matters of drudgery and conſtraint, but as pleaſing and healthful recreations both for the body and mind. Another of their rules, which, though new and ſingular, is favourable to the health and vigour of the body and mind, is, that the ſtudents ſhall not ſleep on feather beds but on matreſſes, and each one by himſelf. Particular attention is paid to the morals and religion of the ſtudents.

There are a few other literary inſtitutions, of inferior note, in different parts of the State, and proviſion is made for free ſchools in moſt of the counties; though ſome are entirely neglected, and very few carried on with any ſucceſs; ſo that a great proportion of the lower claſs of people are ignorant; and there are not a few who cannot write their names. But the revolution, among other happy effects, has rouſed the ſpirit of education, which is faſt ſpreading its ſalutary influences over this and the other ſouthern States.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES.] There are ſeveral remarkable caves in the weſtern part of this State, but particular and accurate deſcriptions of them have not been received.

EXPENSES OF GOVERNMENT AND TAXES.] The annual expenſes of government are eſtimated at about 20,000l. currency. The revenue ariſes chiefly from taxes on real and perſonal property.

CONSTITUTION.] The legiſlature is compoſed of two diſtinct branches, a Senate and Houſe of Delegates, and ſtiled, The General Aſſembly of Maryland. The ſenators are elected in the following manner: On the firſt of September, every fifth year, the freemen chooſe two men in each county to be electors of the ſenate, and one elector for the city of Annapolis, and one for the town of Baltimore. Theſe electors muſt have the qualifications neceſſary for county delegates: they meet at Anna-

polis, or ſuch other place as ſhall be appointed for convening the legiſlature, on the third Monday in September, every fifth year, and elect by ballot fifteen ſenators out of their own body, or from the people at large. Nine of theſe muſt be reſidents on the weſtern ſhore, and ſix on the eaſtern; they muſt be more than twenty-five years of age; muſt have reſided in the State more than three years next preceding the election, and have real and perſonal property above the value of a thouſand pounds. The ſenate may originate any bills, except money bills, to which they can only give their aſſent or diſſent. The ſenate chooſe their preſident by ballot. The houſe of delegates is compoſed of four members for each county, choſen annually the firſt Monday in October. The city of Annapolis and town of Baltimore ſend each two delegates. The qualifications of a delegate are, full age, one year's reſidence in the county where he is choſen, and real and perſonal property above the value of five hundred pounds. Both houſes chooſe their own officers, and judge of the election of their members: a majority of each is a quorum. The election of ſenators and delegates is *viva voce*, and ſheriffs the returning officers, except in Baltimore town, where the commiſſioners ſuperintend the elections and make returns. The ſtated ſeſſion of the legiſlature is on the firſt Monday in November. The qualifications of a freeman are full age, a freehold eſtate of fifty acres of land, and actual reſidence in the county where he offers to vote, property to the value of thirty pounds in any part of the State, and a year's reſidence in the county where he offers to vote.

On the ſecond Monday in November, annually, a governor is appointed by the joint ballot of both houſes, taken in each houſe reſpectively, and depoſited in a conference room; where the boxes are examined by a joint committee of both houſes, and the number of votes ſeverally reported. The governor cannot continue in office longer than three years ſucceſſively, nor be re-elected until the expiration of four years after he has been out of office. The qualifications for the chief magiſtracy are, twenty-five years of age, five years reſidence in the State next preceding the election, and real and perſonal eſtate above the value of five thouſand pounds, one thouſand of which muſt be freehold eſtate. On the ſecond Tueſday of November, annually, the ſenators and delegates elect, by joint ballot, five able and diſcreet men, above twenty-five years of age, reſidents in the State three years next preceding the election, and poſſeſſing a freehold of lands and tenements above the value of a thouſand pounds, to be a council for aſſiſting the governor in the duties of his office. Senators, delegates, and members of council, whilſt ſuch, can hold no other office of profit, nor receive the profits of any office exerciſed by another. The governor, with the advice of his council, appoints the chancellor, all judges and juſtices, the attorney-general, naval and militia officers, regiſters of the land office, ſurveyors, and all other civil officers, except conſtables, aſſeſſors, and overſeers of the roads. A court of appeals is eſtabliſhed for the final determination of all cauſes which may be brought from the general court* of admiralty, or of chancery.

This conſtitution was eſtabliſhed by a convention of delegates, at Annapolis, Auguſt 14, 1776.

History.] Maryland was granted by king Charles I. to George Calvert,† baron of Baltimore, in Ireland, June 20, 1632. The government of the province was, by charter,

* In ſome of the eaſtern States the legiſlature is called the General Court. In ſome of the ſouthern, the General Court is the Supreme Judicial Court.

† George Calvert, lord Baltimore, the founder of Maryland, born in 1582, was educated at Oxford univerſity, was knighted in 1617, by James I. and two years after was appointed one of the principal ſecretaries of

charter, veſted in the proprietary; but it appears, that he either never exerciſed theſe powers alone, or but for a ſhort time; for we find, that in 1637 the freemen rejected a body of laws drawn up in England, and tranſmitted by his lordſhip, in order to be paſſed for the government of the province. In the place of theſe, they propoſed forty-two bills to be enacted into laws, by the conſent of the proprietary: theſe were, however, never enacted; at leaſt they are not on record.

The honourable Leonard Calvert, Eſq. Lord Baltimore's brother, was the firſt governor, or lieutenant-general. In 1638 a law was paſſed, conſtituting the firſt regular Houſe of Aſſembly, which was to conſiſt of ſuch repreſentatives, called Burgeſſes, as ſhould be elected purſuant to writs iſſued by the governor. Theſe burgeſſes poſſeſſed *all the powers of the perſons electing them*; but any other freemen, who did not aſſent to the election, might take their ſeats in perſon. *Twelve* burgeſſes or freemen, with the lieutenant-general and ſecretary, conſtituted the aſſembly or legiſlature. This aſſembly ſat at St. Mary's, one of the ſouthern counties, which was the firſt ſettled part of Maryland.

In 1642, it was enacted, that ten members of the aſſembly, of whom the governor and ſix burgeſſes were to be ſeven, ſhould be a houſe; and if ſickneſs ſhould prevent that number from attending, the members preſent ſhould make a houſe.

In 1644, one Ingle excited a rebellion, forced the governor to fly to Virginia for aid and protection, and ſeized the records and the great ſeal; the laſt of which, with moſt of the records of the province, were loſt or deſtroyed. From this period, to the year 1647, when order was reſtored, the proceedings of the province are involved in obſcurity.

In July, 1646, the Houſe of Aſſembly, or more properly the burgeſſes, requeſted that they might be ſeparated into two branches—the burgeſſes by themſelves, with a negative upon bills. This was not granted by the lieutenant-general at that time; but in 1650, an act was paſſed dividing the aſſembly into two houſes: the governor, ſecretary, and any one or more of the council, formed the *Upper Houſe*; the delegates from the ſeveral hundreds, who now repreſent the freemen, formed the *Lower Houſe*. At this time there were in the province but two counties, St. Mary's and the Iſle of

of ſtate, which office he diſcharged with great induſtry and fidelity, and was rewarded by the King with a penſion of a thouſand pounds a year. Having enjoyed this office about five years, he reſigned it in 1614, freely owning to his Majeſty, that he was become a Roman Catholic. This honeſt confeſſion ſo affected the King, that he continued him privy counſellor during his reign, and in 1625, created him (by the name of Sir George Calvert, of Danbywiſke in Yorkſhire, knight) baron of Baltimore, in the county of Longford, in Ireland. While he was ſecretary, he obtained a patent of the province of Avalon in Newfoundland, where he built an houſe, and ſpent 25,000l. in advancing this new plantation; but finding it expoſed to the French, was obliged at laſt to abandon it.

Upon this he came over to Virginia, and having taken a view of the country returned to England, and obtained from Charles I. who was his friend, a patent, to him and his heirs, for Maryland.* He died in London, April 15, 1642. "Though he was a Roman Catholic, yet he kept himſelf ſincere and diſengaged from all intereſts; and was the only ſtateſman that, being engaged to a decried party, managed his buſineſs, with that great reſpect for all ſides, that all who knew him applauded him; and none who had any thing to do with him complained of him." He was a man of great abilities and candour. Judge Popham, and Lord Baltimore, though agreed in the public deſign of foreign plantations, differed in the manner of managing them. The former was for extirpating the original inhabitants, the latter for converting them; the one ſent the vicious and profligate, the other the ſober and virtuous, to the plantations; one was for preſent profit, the other for reaſonable expectation, wiſhing to have but few governors, and thoſe not intereſted merchants, but diſintereſted gentlemen; granting liberties with great caution, and leaving every one to provide for himſelf by his own induſtry, and not out of a common ſtock.†

* See a copy of this patent in Hazard's Hiſtorical Collections, page 327.

† See Carey's Muſeum, Vol. 6, page 402.

Kent, but Ann Arundel was added the ſame ſeſſion. This was during the adminiſtration of Governor Stone.

In 1654, during Cromwell's uſurpation in England, an act was paſſed, reſtraining the exerciſe of the Roman Catholic religion. This muſt have been procured by the mere terror of Cromwell's power, for the firſt and principal inhabitants were Catholics. Indeed the power of Cromwell was not eſtabliſhed in Maryland without force and bloodſhed. His friends and foes came to an open rupture, an engagement enſued, Governor Stone was taken priſoner, and condemned to be ſhot: this ſentence, however, was not executed, but he was kept a long time in confinement.

In March 1658, Joſiah Fendall, Eſq. was appointed lieutenant-general of Maryland by commiſſion from Oliver Cromwell: he diſſolved the upper houſe, and ſurrendered the powers of government into the hands of the delegates.

Upon the reſtoration in 1660, the honourable Philip Calvert, Eſq. was appointed governor; the old form of government was revived; Fendall, and one Gerrard, a counſellor, were indicted, found guilty, and condemned to baniſhment, with the loſs of their eſtates; but, upon petition, they were pardoned.

In 1689, the government was taken out of the hands of Lord Baltimore by the grand convention of England; and in 1692, Mr. Copley was appointed governor by commiſſion from William and Mary.

In 1692, the Proteſtant religion was eſtabliſhed by law.

In 1699, under the adminiſtration of Governor Blackiſton, it was enacted, that Annapolis ſhould be the ſeat of government.

In 1716, the government of this province was reſtored to the proprietary, and continued in his hands till the late revolution, when, though a minor, his property in the lands was confiſcated, and the government aſſumed by the freemen of the province, who formed the conſtitution now exiſting. At the cloſe of the war, Henry Harford, Eſq. the natural ſon and heir of Lord Baltimore, petitioned the legiſlature of Maryland for his eſtate, but his petition was not granted. Mr. Harford eſtimated his loſs of quit-rents, valued at twenty-five years purchaſe, and including arrears, at £.259,488 : 5 : 0, dollars at 7/6—and the value of his manors and reſerved lands at £.327,441 of the ſame money.

List *of* Governors, *with the dates of their appointments.*

Hon. Leonard Calvert, Eſq. appointed governor, - -	1637
Thomas Green, Eſq. - - - - -	1647
William Stone, Eſq. - - - - -	1649
The government remained in the hands of the parliament commiſſioners during the time of Oliver Cromwell's uſurpation, - - -	1654
The commiſſioners, by certain articles of agreement then entered into, delivered up the government into the hands of Jonah Fendall, Eſq. then governor, - - - - - -	1658
Hon. Phillip Calvert, made governor - - - -	1660
Charles Calvert, Eſq. - - - - -	1662
Upon the death of Cecilius, the government deſcended to Charles, Lord Baltimore, who came into the province - - - -	1675
Thomas Notly, Eſq. governor - - - -	1678
Who continued till his Lordſhip returned a ſecond time to the province in	1681

King

A MAP of the STATES of VIRGINIA, NORTH CAROLINA, SOUTH CAROLINA AND GEORGIA; Comprehending the SPANISH PROVINCES of EAST AND WEST FLORIDA: Exhibiting the Boundaries as fixed by the late Treaty of Peace between the UNITED STATES and the SPANISH DOMINIONS.

Compiled from late Surveys & Observations by Joseph Purcell.

EXPLANATION

- The boundary between the United States and Spanish Dominions
- Divisional lines between each State
- Lines limiting the territory claimed by each Indian Nation
- Roads
- Towns
- Indian Towns and Villages

Scale of Miles 69½ to a Degree.

7 RANGES

ARMY LANDS

OHIO RIVER

WESTERN TERRITORY

SPANISH DOMINIONS

ILLINOIS Co.

VIRGINIA

KENTUCKY

NORTH CAROLINA

STATE of FRANKLIN

SOUTH CAROLINA

GEORGIA

CHICASAWS

CHEROKEES

CREEKS

CHACTAWS

MUSKOGEES

SEMINOLAS

WEST FLORIDA

EAST FLORIDA

OHIO COMPANY

INDIANA

JEFFERSON Co.

NELSON Co.

LINCOLN Co.

BOURBON Co.

MADISON Co.

WASHINGTON

LUNENBURG Co.

FAYETTE Co.

Cumberland Settlements

Transylvania Co.

ARMY LANDS

Mouths of the MISSISIPPI

GULF OF MEXICO

GULF STREAM

GULF OF FLORIDA or NEW BAHAMA CHANNEL

ATLANTIC OCEAN

Long. West from London 90 85 80 75

Engraved for Morse's Geography. Published by John Stockdale Jan.ʸ 25.th 1792.

W. Harrison Sen.r Sc. Jun.r

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7 RANGES

ARMY LANDS

SPANISH DOMINIONS

LOUISIANA

WEST FLORIDA

EAST FLORIDA

GULF OF MEXICO

GULF OF FLORIDA or NEW BAHAMA CHANNEL

ATLANTIC OCEAN

OHIO RIVER

Mississippi R.

Missouri R.

Illinois R.

Wabash R.

Tennessee R.

Cumberland R.

Ohio R.

Alleghany R.

Appalachicola R.

Mobile R.

Apalachy Mts.

Appalachian Mountains

Blue Ridge

Alleghany Mts.

Cumberland Mts.

Iron Hills

Lead Mts.

Long Mts.

Green Briar R.

New River

Kanawha R.

Great Kanhaway R.

Monongahela R.

Youghiogeny R.

Potomack R.

Susquehanna R.

Delaware R.

Chesapeake Bay

Delaware Bay

Hudson's Bay

Baltimore

Fort Pitt

Lexington

Louisville

Danville

Harrodsburg

Boonsborough

Frederick's R.

Green R.

Cumberland Settlements

Nashville

Cumberland R.

Tennessee R.

Broad R.

Catawba R.

Saluda R.

Pacolet R.

Enoree R.

Tyger R.

Broad R.

Pedee R.

Black R.

Lynches Creek

Little R.

Waccamaw R.

Lake Waccamaw

Great Pedee R.

Yadkin R.

Catawbas

Cherokees

Chickasaws

Choctaws

Creeks

Muskogees

Upper Creeks

Lower Creeks

Seminoles

Apalachy Country

Mouths of the Mississippi

Bay St. Andrew

Bay St. Joseph

Cape St. Blas

Pensacola

Mobile

Fort Stoddert

Fort St. Marks

Fort Charlotte

Fort Tombecbe

Fort Confederation

Fort Toulouse

Fort Wilkinson

Fort Fidius

Fort Rosalie

Fort Panmure

Fort Adams

Fort Pickering

Fort Massac

Fort Jefferson

Fort Washington

Fort Harmar

Fort Pitt

Fort Royal En. alias Beaufort

Fort Augustine

Fort Barrancas

Fort Charlotte



King William and Queen Mary took upon them the government, and appointed Lyonel Copley, Eſq. governor - - - 1692
Francis Nicholſon, Eſq. - - - - - 1694
Upon the death of Queen Mary, the government was altogether in the hands of King William III. - - - - - 1696
Nathaniel Blackiſton, Eſq. governor - - - - 1699
By the death of King William III. Queen Ann took upon her the government—and the ſame governor was continued - - - 1701-2
Thomas Finch, Eſq. preſident - - - - 1703
John Seymour, Eſq. governor - - - - 1704
Edward Lloyd, Eſq. preſident - - - - 1704
John Hart, Eſq. governor - - - - 1714
Upon the death of Queen Ann, King George I. took upon him the government—and the ſame governor was continued - - - 1715
The government was reſtored to Charles, Lord Baltimore, who iſſued a new commiſſion to John Hart, Eſq. - - - - 1716
Charles Calvert, Eſq. governor - - - - 1720
Benedict Leonard Calvert, Eſq. governor - - - 1727
The Proprietor came into the province in - - - 1733
And returned to England - - - - - 1734
Samuel Ogle, Eſq. governor - - - - 1737
Thomas Bladen, Eſq. governor - - - - 1742
Samuel Ogle, Eſq. governor - - - - 1747
By the death of Charles, Lord Baltimore, the province deſcended to his ſon Frederick.—Governor Ogle died the ſame year - - - 1751
Benjamin Taſker, Eſq. preſident - - - - 1751
Horatio Sharp, Eſq. governor - - - - 1753
Robert Eden, Eſq. governor - - - - 1769
Frederick, Lord Baron of Baltimore, died - - - 1771
Robert Eden, Eſq. governor - - - - 1773

Some of the governors ſince the revolution have been—

Thomas Johnſon, Jun.	William Smallwood,
William Paca,	John Eager Howard,
Thomas Sim Lee.	George Plater.

VIRGINIA.*

Situation and Extent.

Miles.			Sq. Miles.
Length 446	between	0° and 8° W. Longitude	70,000
Breadth 224		36° 30′ and 40° 30′ N. Latitude	

Boundaries.] Bounded north, by Maryland, part of Pennſylvania, and Ohio river; weſt, by Kentucky; ſouth, by North Carolina; and eaſt, by the Atlantic ocean.

* In the following deſcription of this State the Author has made a free uſe of Mr. Jefferſon's celebrated Hiſtory of Virginia.—Printed for Mr. Stockdale, London.

CIVIL DIVISIONS AND POPULATION.] This State is divided into eighty-two counties, and by another diviſion into pariſhes, which, with the number of inhabitants, according to the cenſus of 1790, are mentioned in the following

TABLE.

	Counties.	Slaves.	Total Inhabitants.
West of the Blue Ridge.	Ohio	281	5212
	Monongalia	154	4768
	Waſhington	450	5625
	Montgomery, Wythe, Botetourt	2087	23752
	Greenbriar, Kanawa	319	6015
	Hampſhire	454	7346
	Berkley	2932	19713
	Frederick	4250	19681
	Shenandoah	512	10510
	Rockingham	772	7449
	Auguſta	1222	10886
	Rockbridge	682	6548
Between the Blue Ridge and the Tide Waters.	Loudoun	4030	18962
	Fauquier	6642	17892
	Culpepper	8226	22105
	Spotſylvania	5933	11252
	Orange	4421	9921
	Louiſa	4573	8467
	Goochland	4656	9053
	Flavania	1466	3921
	Albemarle	5579	12585
	Amherſt	5296	13703
	Buckingham	4168	9779
	Bedford	2754	10531
	Henry	1551	8479
	Pittſylvania	2979	11579
	Haliſax	5565	14722
	Charlotte	4816	10078
	Prince Edward	3986	8100
	Cumberland	4434	8153
	Powhatan	4325	6822
	Amelia, Nottaway	11307	18097
	Lunenburg	4332	8959
	Mecklenburg	6762	14733
	Brunſwick	6776	12827

Between

	Counties.	Slaves.	Total Inhabitants.
Between James river and Carolina.	Greenſville	3620	6362
	Dinwiddie	7334	13934
	Cheſterfield	7487	14214
	Prince George	4519	8173
	Surry	3097	6227
	Suſſex	5387	10554
	Southampton	5993	12864
	Iſle of Wight	3867	9028
	Nanſemond	3817	9010
	Norfolk	5345	14524
	Princeſs Ann	3202	7793
Between James and York rivers.	Henrico	5819	12000
	Hanover	8223	14754
	New Kent	3700	6239
	Charles City	3141	5518
	James City	2405	4070
	Williamſburg, York	2760	5233
	Warwick	990	1690
	Elizabeth City	1876	3450
Between York and Rappahannoc rivers.	Caroline	10292	17489
	King William	5151	8128
	King and Queen	5143	9377
	Eſſex	5440	9122
	Middleſex	2558	4140
	Glouceſter	7063	13498
Betw. Rappahannoc and Patomak rivers.	Fairfax	4574	12320
	Prince William	4704	11615
	Stafford	4036	9588
	King George	4157	7366
	Richmond	3984	6985
	Weſtmoreland	4425	7722
	Northumberland	4460	9163
	Lancaſter	3236	5638
Eaſt ſhore	Accomac	4262	13959
	Northampton	3244	6889

The following are new counties:

Counties.	Slaves.	Total Inhabitants.
Campbell	2488	7685
Franklin	1073	6842
Harriſon	67	2080
Randolph	19	951
Hardy	369	7336
Pendleton	73	2452
Ruſſell	190	3338
Total amount	292,627	454,983
The whole number of Inhabitants		747,610

Kentucky, which till lately belonged to this State, contains 73,677 inhabitants, which added to 747,610, makes 821,287.

In the year 1781, a very inaccurate cenſus was taken, ſeveral counties made no return: but ſupplying by conjecture the deficiencies, the population of Virginia was then computed at 567,614; the increaſe then is 258,673, and is as 9 to 13 in ten years.

The increaſe of ſlaves, during thoſe ten years, has been leſs than it had been obſerved for a century before. The reaſon is, that about 30,000 ſlaves periſhed with the ſmall-pox or camp fever, caught from the Britiſh army, or went off with them while Lord Cornwallis was roving over that State.

Climate.] In an extenſive country, it will be expected that the climate is not the ſame in all its parts. It is remarkable that, proceeding on the ſame parallel of latitude weſterly, the climate becomes colder in like manner as when you proceed northwardly. This continues to be the caſe till you attain the ſummit of the Allegany, which is the higheſt land between the ocean and the Miſſiſſippi. From thence, deſcending in the ſame latitude to the Miſſiſſippi, the change reverſes; and, if we may believe travellers, it becomes warmer there than it is in the ſame latitude on the ſea ſide. Their teſtimony is ſtrengthened by the vegetables and animals which ſubſiſt and multiply there naturally, and do not on the ſea-coaſt. Thus catalpas grow ſpontaneouſly on the Miſſiſſippi, as far as the latitude of 37°, and reeds as far as 38°. Parroquets even winter on the Scioto, in the 39th degree of latitude.

The ſouth-weſt winds, eaſt of the mountains, are moſt predominant. Next to theſe, on the ſea-coaſt, the north-eaſt, and at the mountains, the north-weſt winds prevail. The difference between theſe winds is very great. The north-eaſt is loaded with vapour, inſomuch that the ſalt manufacturers have found that their chryſtals would not ſhoot while that blows; it occaſions a diſtreſſing chill, and a heavineſs and depreſſion of the ſpirits. The north-weſt is dry, cooling, elaſtic, and animating. The eaſt and ſouth-eaſt breezes come on generally in the afternoon. They have advanced into the country very ſenſibly within the memory of people now living. Mr. Jefferſon reckons the extremes of heat and cold to be 98° above, and 6° below 0, in Fahrenheit's thermometer.

That fluctuation between heat and cold, ſo deſtructive to fruit, prevails leſs in Virginia than in Pennſylvania, in the ſpring ſeaſon; nor is the overflowing of the rivers in Virginia ſo extenſive or ſo frequent at that ſeaſon, as thoſe of the New England States; becauſe the ſnows in the former do not lie accumulating all winter, to be diſſolved all at once in the ſpring, as they do ſometimes in the latter. In Virginia, below the mountains, ſnow ſeldom lies more than a day or two, and ſeldom a week; and the large rivers ſeldom freeze over. This fluctuation of weather, however, is ſufficient to render the winters and ſprings very unwholeſome, as the inhabitants have to walk in almoſt perpetual ſlop.

The months of June and July, though often the hotteſt, are the moſt healthy in the year. The weather is then dry and leſs liable to change than in Auguſt and September, when the rain commences, and ſudden variations take place.

On the ſea coaſt, the land is low, generally within twelve feet of the level of the ſea, interſected in all directions with ſalt creeks and rivers, the heads of which form ſwamps and marſhes, and fenny ground, covered with water in wet ſeaſons. The uncultivated lands are covered with large trees and thick underwood. The vicinity of the ſea, and ſalt creeks and rivers, occaſion a conſtant moiſture and warmth of the atmoſphere, ſo that although under the ſame latitude, 100 or 150 miles in the country, deep ſnows, and frozen rivers frequently happen, for a ſhort ſeaſon, yet here ſuch occurrences

currences are conſidered as phenomena; for theſe reaſons, the trees are often in bloom as early as the laſt of February; from this period, however, till the end of April, the inhabitants are incommoded by cold rains, piercing winds, and ſharp froſts, which ſubjects them to the inflammatory diſeaſes, known here under the names of pleuriſy and peripneumony.

RIVERS AND CANALS.] An inſpection of the map of Virginia will give a better idea of the geography of its rivers, than any deſcription in writing. Their navigation may be imperfectly noted.

Roanoke, ſo far as it lies within this State, is no where navigable, but for canoes, or light batteaux; and even for theſe, in ſuch detached parcels as to have prevented the inhabitants from availing themſelves of it at all.

James River, and its waters, afford navigation as follows: The whole of Elizabeth river, the loweſt of thoſe which run into James river, is a harbour, and would contain upwards of 300 ſhips. The channel is from 150 to 200 fathoms wide, and at common flood tide, affords eighteeen feet water to Norfolk. The Strafford, a ſixty-gun ſhip, went there, lightening herſelf to croſs the bar at Sowell's Point. The Fier Rodrigue, pierced for ſixty-four guns, and carrying fifty, went there without lightening. Craney iſland, at the mouth of this river, commands its channel tolerably well.

Nanſemond River is navigable to Sleepy Hole, for veſſels of 250 tons; to Suffolk, for thoſe of 100 tons; and to Milner's, for thoſe of twenty-five. *Pagan Creek* affords eight or ten feet water to Smithfield, which admits veſſels of twenty tons. *Chickahominy* has at its mouth a bar, on which is only twelve feet water at common flood tide. Veſſels paſſing that, may go eight miles up the river; thoſe of ten feet draught may go four miles farther, and thoſe of ſix tons burthen twenty miles farther.

Appamattox may be navigated as far as Broadways, by any veſſel which has croſſed Harriſon's bar in James river; it keeps eight or nine feet water a mile or two higher up to Fiſher's bar, and four feet on that and upwards to Peterſburg, where all navigation ceaſes.

James River itſelf affords harbour for veſſels of any ſize in Hampton Road, but not in ſafety through the whole winter; and there is navigable water for them as far as Mulberry iſland. A forty-gun ſhip goes to Jameſtown, and, lightening herſelf, may paſs to Harriſon's bar, on which there is only fifteen feet water. Veſſels of 250 tons may go to Warwick; thoſe of 125 go to Rocket's, a mile below Richmond; from thence is about ſeven feet water to Richmond; and about the center of the town, four feet and a half, where the navigation is interrupted by falls, which in a courſe of ſix miles deſcend about 80 feet perpendicular: above theſe it is reſumed in canoes and batteaux, and is proſecuted ſafely and advantageouſly to within ten miles of the Blue Ridge; and even through the Blue Ridge a ton weight has been brought; and the expenſe would not be great, when compared with its object, to open a tolerable navigation up Jackſon's river and Carpenter's creek, to within twenty-five miles of Howard's creek of Green Briar, both of which have then water enough to float veſſels into the Great Kanhaway. In ſome future ſtate of population, it is poſſible that its navigation may alſo be made to interlock with that of Patomak, and through that to communicate by a ſhort portage with the Ohio. It is to be noted, that this river is called in the maps James river, only to its confluence with the Rivanna; thence to the Blue Ridge it is called the Fluvanna; and thence to its ſource, Jackſon's river. But in common ſpeech it is called James river to its ſource.

The *Rivanna*, a branch of James river, is navigable for canoes and batteaux to its interſection with the ſouth-weſt mountains, which is about twenty-two miles; and

may eaſily be opened to navigation through thoſe mountains, to its fork above Charlotteſville.

York River, at Yorktown, affords the beſt harbour in the State for veſſels of the largeſt ſize. The river there narrows to the width of a mile, and is contained within very high banks, cloſe under which the veſſels may ride. It holds four fathom water at high tide for twenty-five miles above York to the mouth of Poropotank, where the river is a mile and a half wide, and the channel only ſeventy-five fathom, and paſſing under a high bank. At the confluence of Pamunkey and Mattapony, it is reduced to three fathom depth, which continues up Pamunkey to Cumberland, where the width is 100 yards, and up Mattapony to within two miles of Frazier's ferry, where it becomes two and a half fathom deep, and holds that about five miles. Pamunkey is then capable of navigation for loaded flats to Brockman's bridge, fifty miles above Hanovertown, and Mattapony to Downer's bridge, ſeventy miles above its mouth.

Piankatank, the little rivers making out of Mobjack Bay and thoſe of the Eaſtern ſhore, receive only very ſmall veſſels, and theſe can but enter them. *Rappahannock* affords four fathom water to Hobb's Hole, and two fathoms from thence to Frederickſburg, 110 miles.

Patomak is ſeven and a half miles wide at the mouth; four and a half at Nomony Bay; three at Aquia; one and a half at Hallooing Point; one and a quarter at Alexandria. Its ſoundings are ſeven fathom at the mouth; five at St. George's Iſland; four and a half at Lower Matchodic; three at Swan's Point, and thence up to Alexandria; thence ten feet water to the falls, which are thirteen miles above Alexandria. The tides in the Patomak are not very ſtrong, excepting after great rains, when the ebb is pretty ſtrong; then there is little or no flood; and there is never more than four or five hours flood, except with long and ſtrong ſouth winds.

The diſtance from the Capes of Virginia to the termination of the tide water in this river is above 300 miles; and navigable for ſhips the greateſt burthen, nearly that diſtance. From thence this river, obſtructed by four conſiderable falls, extends through a vaſt tract of inhabited country towards its ſource. Theſe falls are, 1ſt, The *Little Falls*, three miles above tide water, in which diſtance there is a fall of thirty-ſix feet: 2d, The *Great Falls*, ſix miles higher, where is a fall of ſeventy-ſix feet in one mile and a quarter; 3d, The *Seneca Falls*, ſix miles above the former, which form ſhort, irregular rapids, with a fall of about ten feet; and 4th, The *Sheuandoah Falls*, ſixty miles from the *Seneca*, where is a fall of about thirty feet in three miles: from which laſt, *Fort Cumberland* is about 120 miles diſtant. The obſtructions which are oppoſed to the navigation above and between theſe falls are of little conſequence.

Early in the year 1785, the legiſlatures of Virginia and Maryland paſſed acts to encourage opening the navigation of this river. It was eſtimated that the expenſe of the works would amount to 50,000l. ſterling, and ten years were allowed for their completion. The preſident and directors of the incorporated company have ſince ſuppoſed that 45,000l. would be adequate to the operation, and that it will be accompliſhed in a ſhorter period than was ſtipulated. Their calculations are founded on the progreſs already made, and the ſummary mode eſtabliſhed for enforcing the collection of the dividends, as the money may become neceſſary.

According to the opinion of the preſident aud directors, *locks* * will be neceſſary at no more than two places, the *Great* and the *Little Falls*; ſix at the former, and three at

* A lock is a baſon placed lengthwiſe in a river or canal, lined with walls of maſonry on each ſide, and terminated by two gates, placed where there is a caſcade or natural fall of the country; and ſo conſtructed, that

at the latter. At the latter nothing had been attempted in 1789. At the *Great Falls*, where the difficulties were judged by many to be inſurmountable, the work is nearly or quite completed. At the *Seneca Falls* the laborious part of the buſineſs is entirely accompliſhed, by removing the obſtacles and making the deſcent more gradual; ſo that nothing remained in 1789 but to finiſh the channel for this gentle current in a workmanlike manner. At the *Shenandoah*, where the river breaks through the Blue ridge, though a prodigious quantity of labour has been beſtowed, yet the paſſage is not yet perfected. Such proficiency has been made, however, that an avenue for a partial navigation has been opened from *Fort Cumberland* to the *Great Falls*, which are within nine miles of a ſhipping port.*

As ſoon as the proprietors ſhall begin to receive toll, they will doubtleſs find an ample compenſation for their pecuniary advances. By an eſtimate made many years ago, it was calculated that the amount, in the commencement, would be at the rate of 11,875l. Virginia currency, per annum. The toll muſt every year become more productive; as the quantity of articles for exportation will be augmented in a rapid ratio, with the increaſe of population and the extenſion of ſettlements. In the mean time the effect will be immediately ſeen in the agriculture of the interior country; for the multitude of horſes now employed in carrying produce to market, will then be uſed altogether for the purpoſes of tillage. But, in order to form juſt conceptions of the utility of this inland navigation, it would be requiſite to notice the long rivers which empty into the Patomak, and even to take a ſurvey of the geographical poſition of the *weſtern waters*.

The *Shenandoah*, which empties juſt above the Blue mountains, may, according to report, be made navigable, at a trifling expence, more than 150 miles from its confluence with the Patomak; and will receive and bear the produce of the richeſt part of the State. Commiſſioners have been appointed to form a plan, and to eſtimate the expence of opening the channel of this river, if on examination it ſhould be found practicable. The South Branch, ſtill higher, is navigable in its actual condition nearly or quite 100 miles, through exceedingly fertile lands. Between theſe on the Virginia ſide are ſeveral ſmaller rivers, that may with eaſe be improved, ſo as to afford a paſſage for boats. On the Maryland ſide are the Monocaſy, Antietam, and Conegocheague, ſome of which paſs through the State of Maryland, and have their ſources in Pennſylvania.

From Fort Cumberland, (or Wills' Creek) one or two good waggon roads may be had (where the diſtance is ſaid by ſome to be thirty-five and by others forty miles) to the Youghiogany, a large and navigable branch of the Monongahela, which laſt forms a junction with the Allegany at Fort Pitt.

that the baſon being filled with water by an upper ſluice, to the level of the waters above, a veſſel may aſcend through the upper gate; or the water in the lock being reduced to the level of the water at the bottom of the caſcade, the veſſel may aſcend through the lower gate; for when the waters are brought to a level on either ſide, the gate on that ſide may be eaſily opened. But as the lower gate is ſtrained in proportion to the depth of water it ſupports, when the perpendicular height of the water exceeds twelve or thirteen feet, more locks than one become neceſſary. Thus, if the fall be ſeventeen feet, two locks are required, each having eight feet fall; and if the fall be twenty-ſix feet, three locks are neceſſary, each having eight feet eight inches fall. The ſide walls of the locks ought to be very ſtrong. Where the natural foundation is bad, they ſhould be founded on piles, and platforms of wood: they ſhould likewiſe ſlope outwards, in order to reſiſt the preſſure of the earth behind.

* The author has been diſappointed in receiving an account of the preſent ſtate of the Virginia canals and improvements.

But, by paſſing farther up the Patomak than Fort Cumberland, which may very eaſily be done, a portage by a good waggon road to Cheat river, another large branch of the Monongahela, can be obtained through a ſpace which ſome ſay is twenty, others twenty-two, others twenty five, and none more than thirty miles.

When we have arrived at either of theſe weſtern waters, the navigation through that immenſe region is opened by a thouſand directions, and to the lakes in ſeveral places by portages of leſs than ten miles; and by one portage, it is aſſerted, of not more than a ſingle mile.

Notwithſtanding it was ſneeringly ſaid by ſome foreigners, at the beginning of this undertaking, that the Americans are fond of engaging in ſplendid projects which they could never accompliſh; yet it is hoped the ſucceſs of this firſt eſſay towards improving their inland navigation, will, in ſome degree, reſcue them from the reproach intended to have been fixed upon their national character, by the unmerited imputation.

The *Great Kanhawa* is a river of conſiderable note for the fertility of its land, and ſtill more, as leading towards the head waters of James river. Nevertheleſs, it is doubtful whether its great and numerous rapids will admit a navigation, but at an expence to which it will require ages to render its inhabitants equal. The great obſtacles begin at what are called the Great Falls, ninety miles above the mouth, below which are only five or ſix rapids, and theſe paſſable, with ſome difficulty, even at low water. From the falls to the mouth of Green Briar is 100 miles, and thence to the lead mines 120. It is 280 yards wide at its mouth.

The *Little Kanhawa* is 150 yards wide at the mouth. It yields a navigation of ten miles only. Perhaps its northern branch, called Junius' Creek, which interlocks with the weſtern waters of Monongahela, may one day admit a ſhorter paſſage from the latter into the Ohio.

MOUNTAINS.] It is worthy notice, that the mountains are not ſolitary and ſcattered confuſedly over the face of the country; but commence at about 150 miles from the ſea coaſt, are diſpoſed in ridges one behind another, running nearly parallel with the ſea coaſt, though rather approaching it as they advance north-eaſtwardly. To the ſouth-weſt, as the tract of country between the ſea coaſt and the Miſſiſſippi becomes narrower, the mountains converge into a ſingle ridge, which, as it approaches the Gulph of Mexico, ſubſides into plain country, and gives riſe to ſome of the waters of that gulph, and particularly to a river called Apalachicola, probably from the Apalachies, an Indian nation formerly reſiding on it. Hence the mountains giving riſe to that river, and ſeen from its various parts, were called the Apalachian Mountains, being in fact the end or termination only of the great ridges paſſing through the Continent. European geographers, however, extended the ſame northwardly as far as the mountains extended; ſome giving it after their ſeparation into different ridges, to the Blue Ridge, others to the North Mountains, others to the Allegany, others to the Laurel Ridge, as may be ſeen in their different maps. But none of theſe ridges were ever known by that name to the inhabitants, either native or emigrant, but as they ſaw them ſo called in European maps. In the ſame direction generally are the veins of lime-ſtone, coal, and other minerals hitherto diſcovered; and ſo range the falls of the great rivers. But the courſes of the great rivers are at right angles with theſe. James and Patomak penetrate through all the ridges of mountains eaſtward of the Allegany, that is broken by no watercourſe. It is in fact the ſpine of the country between the Atlantic on one ſide, and the Miſſiſſippi and St. Lawrence on the other. The paſſage

of

the Patomak through the Blue ridge is perhaps one of the moſt ſtupendous ſcenes in nature. You ſtand on a very high point of land. On your right comes up the Shenandoah, having ranged along the foot of the mountain an hundred miles to ſeek a vent; on your left approaches the Patomak, in queſt of a paſſage alſo: in the moment of their junction they ruſh together againſt the mountain, rend it aſunder, and paſs off to the ſea. The firſt glance of this ſcene hurries our ſenſes into the opinion, that this earth has been created in time, that the mountains were formed firſt, that the rivers began to flow afterwards; that in this place particularly they have been dammed up by the Blue ridge of mountains, and have formed an ocean which filled the whole valley; that continuing to riſe they have at length broken over at this ſpot, and have torn the mountain down from its ſummit to its baſe. The piles of rock on each hand, but particularly on the Shenandoah, the evident marks of their diſruption and avulſion from their beds by the moſt powerful agents of nature, corroborate the impreſſion: but the diſtant finiſhing which nature has given to the picture, is of a very different character. It is a true contraſt to the fore ground; it is as placid and delightful, as that is wild and tremendous. For the mountain, being cloven aſunder, preſents to the eye, through the cleft, a ſmall catch of ſmooth blue horizon, at an infinite diſtance, in the plain country, inviting you, as it were, from the riot and tumult roaring around, to paſs through the breach and participate of the calm below. Here the eye ultimately compoſes itſelf; and that way too, the road actually leads. You croſs the Patomak above the junction, paſs along its ſide through the baſe of the mountain for three miles, its terrrible precipices hanging in fragments over you, and within about twenty miles reach of Fredericktown and the fine country round that. This ſcene is worth a voyage acroſs the Atlantic. Yet here, as in the neighbourhood of the Natural Bridge, are people who have paſſed their lives within half a dozen miles, and have never been to ſurvey theſe monuments of a war between rivers and mountains, which muſt have ſhaken the earth itſelf to its center. The height of the mountains has not yet been eſtimated with any degree of exactneſs. The Allegany being the great ridge which divides the waters of the Atlantic from thoſe of the Miſſiſſippi, its ſummit is doubtleſs more elevated above the ocean than that of any other mountain. But its relative height, compared with the baſe on which it ſtands, is not ſo great as that of ſome others, the country riſing behind the ſucceſſive ridges like the ſteps of ſtairs. The mountains of the Blue ridge, and of theſe the peaks of Otter are thought to be of a greater height meaſured from their baſe than any others in Virginia, and perhaps in North America. From data, which may be found a tolerable conjecture, we ſuppoſe the higheſt peak to be about 4000 feet perpendicular, which is not a fifth part of the height of the mountains of South America, nor one third of the height which would be neceſſary in our latitude to preſerve ice in the open air unmelted through the year. The ridge of mountains next beyond the Blue ridge, called the North Mountain, is of the greateſt extent; for which reaſon they are named by the Indians the Endleſs Mountains.

The Ouaſioto mountains are fifty or ſixty miles wide at the Gap. Theſe mountains abound in coal, lime, and free-ſtone; the ſummits of them are generally covered with a good ſoil, and a variety of timber; and the low, intervale lands are rich and remarkably well watered.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, SOIL, PRODUCTIONS, &c.] The whole country below the mountains, which are about 150, ſome ſay 200 miles from the ſea, is level, and ſeems from various appearances to have been once waſhed by the ſea. The land between York and James rivers is very level, and its ſurface about forty feet above high water

mark. It appears, from obſervation, to have ariſen to its preſent height, at different periods far diſtant from each other, and that at theſe periods it was waſhed by the ſea; for near Yorktown, where the banks are perpendicular, you firſt ſee a *ſtratum*, intermixed with ſmall ſhells reſembling a mixture of clay and ſand, and about five feet thick; on this lies horizontally, ſmall white ſhells, cockle, clam, &c. an inch or two thick; then a body of earth ſimilar to that firſt mentioned, eighteen inches thick; then a layer of ſhells and another body of earth; on this a layer of three feet of white ſhells mixed with ſand, on which lay a body of oyſter ſhells ſix feet thick, which were covered with earth to the ſurface. The oyſter ſhells are ſo united by a very ſtrong cement that they fall, only when undermined, and then in large bodies, from one to twenty tons weight. They have the appearance of large rocks on the ſhore.*

Theſe appearances continue in a greater or leſs degree in the banks of James river, one hundred miles from the ſea; the appearances then vary, and the banks are filled with ſharks' teeth, bones of large and ſmall fiſh petrified, and many other petrifactions, ſome reſembling the bones of land and other animals, other vegetable ſubſtances. Theſe appearances are not confined to the river banks, but are ſeen in various places in gullies at conſiderable diſtances from the rivers. In one part of the State for ſeventy miles in length, by ſinking a well, you apparently come to the bottom of what was formerly a watercourſe. And even as high up as Botetourt county, among the Allegany mountains, there is a tract of land, judged to be 40,000 acres, ſurrounded on every ſide by mountains, which is entirely covered with oyſter and cockle ſhells, and, from ſome gullies, they appear to be of conſiderable depth. A plantation at Day's Point, on James river, of as many as 1000 acres, appears at a diſtance as if covered with ſnow, but on examination the white appearance is found to ariſe from a bed of clam ſhells, which by repeated plowing have become fine and mixed with earth.

The ſoil below the mountains ſeems to have acquired a character for goodneſs which it by no means deſerves. Though not rich it is well ſuited to the growth of tobacco and Indian corn, and parts of it, for wheat. Good crops of cotton, flax, and hemp are alſo raiſed; and in ſome counties they have plenty of cyder, and exquiſite brandy, diſtilled from peaches, which grow in great abundance upon the numerous rivers of the Cheſapeak.

The planters, before the war, paid their principal attention to the culture of tobacco, of which there uſed to be exported, generally, 55,000 hogſheads a year. Since the revolution they are turning their attention more to the cultivation of wheat, Indian corn, barley, flax, and hemp. It is expected that this State will add the article of rice to the liſt of her exports; as it is ſuppoſed a large body of ſwamp, in the eaſternmoſt counties, is capable of producing it.

Horned or neat cattle are bred in great numbers in the weſtern counties of Virginia, as well as in the States ſouth of it, where they have an extenſive range, and mild winters, without any permanent ſnows.—They run at large, are not houſed, and multiply very faſt.—" In the lower parts of the State a diſeaſe prevails among the neat cattle which proves fatal to all that are not bred there. The oxen, from the more Northern States, which were employed at the ſiege of Yorktown, in October 1781, almoſt all died, ſometimes forty of them in a night, and often ſuddenly dropped down dead in the roads. It is ſaid that the ſeeds of this diſeaſe were brought from the Havannah to South Carolina or Georgia in ſome hides, and that the diſeaſe has progreſſed northward to Virginia. Lord Dunmore imported ſome cattle from Rhode Iſland, and kept them confined in a ſmall paſture, near his ſeat, where no cattle had been for ſome

* General Lincoln.

ſome years, and where they could not intermix with other cattle, and yet they ſoon died.*

The gentlemen, being fond of pleaſure, have taken much pains to raiſe a good breed of horſes, and have ſucceeded in it beyond any of the States. They will give 1000l. ſterling for a good ſeed horſe. Horſe-racing has had a great tendency to encourage the breeding of good horſes, as it affords an opportunity of putting them to the trial of their ſpeed. They are more elegant, and will perform more ſervice, than the horſes of the northern States.

An intelligent gentleman, an inhabitant of Virginia, informs, that caves among the mountains have lately been diſcovered, which yield ſalt petre in ſuch abundance, that he judges 500,000 pounds of it might be collected from them annually.

This State does not abound with good fiſh. Sturgeon, ſhad, and herring are the moſt plenty; pearch, ſheepſhead, drum, rock fiſh, and trout are common; beſides theſe they have oyſters in abundance, crabs, ſhrimps, &c.

CASCADES, CURIOSITIES, AND CAVERNS.] The only remarkable caſcade in this State is that of Falling Spring, in Auguſta. It is a water of James river, where it is called Jackſon's river, riſing in the warm ſpring mountains about twenty miles ſouth-weſt of the warm ſpring, and flowing into that valley. About three quarters of a mile from its ſource, it falls over a rock two hundred feet into the valley below. The ſheet of water is broken in its breadth by the rock in two or three places, but not at all in its height. Between the ſheet and rock, at the bottom, you may walk acroſs dry. This cataract will bear no compariſon with that of Niagara, as to the quantity of water compoſing it; the ſheet being only twelve or fifteen feet wide above, and ſomewhat more ſpread below; but it is half as high again.

In the lime-ſtone country, there are many caverns of very conſiderable extent. The moſt noted is called Madiſon's cave, and is on the north ſide of the Blue ridge, near the interſection of the Rockingham and Auguſta line with the ſouth fork of the ſouthern river of Shenandoah. It is in a hill of about two hundred feet perpendicular height, the aſcent of which, on one ſide, is ſo ſteep that you may pitch a biſcuit from its ſummit into the river which waſhes its baſe. The entrance of the cave is, in this ſide, about two thirds of the way up. It extends into the earth about three hundred feet, branching into ſubordinate caverns, ſometimes aſcending a little, but more generally deſcending, and at length terminates in two different places, at baſons of water of unknown extent, and which appear to be nearly on a level with the water of the river. It is probably one of the many reſervoirs with which the interior parts of the earth are ſuppoſed to abound, and which yield ſupplies to the fountains of water, diſtinguiſhed from others only by its being acceſſible. The vault of this cave is of ſolid lime-ſtone, from twenty to forty or fifty feet high, through which water is continually exudating. This, trickling down the ſides of the cave, has incruſted them over in the form of elegant drapery; and dripping from the top of the vault, generates on that, and on the baſe below, ſtalactites of a conical form, ſome of which have met and formed maſſive columns.

Another of theſe caves is near the North Mountain, in the county of Frederick. The entrance into this is on the top of an extenſive ridge. You deſcend thirty or forty feet, as into a well, from whence the cave then extends, nearly horizontally, four hundred feet into the earth, preſerving a breadth of from twenty to fifty feet, and a height of from five to twelve feet. After entering this cave a few feet, the mercury, which in the open air was at 50°, roſe to 57° of Fahrenheit's thermometer.

At

* General Lincoln.

At the Panther gap, in the ridge which divides the waters of the Cow and the Calf paſture, is what is called the Blowing Cave. It is in the ſide of a hill, is of about one hundred feet diameter, and emits conſtantly a current of air of ſuch force, as to keep the weeds proſtrate to the diſtance of twenty yards before it. This current is ſtrongeſt in dry froſty weather, and in long ſpells of rain weakeſt. Regular inſpirations and expirations of air, by caverns and fiſſures, have been probably enough accounted for, by ſuppoſing them combined with intermitting fountains, as they muſt of courſe inhale the air while the reſervoirs are emptying themſelves, and again emit it while they are filling. But a conſtant iſſue of air, only varying in its force as the weather is drier or damper, will require a new hypotheſis. There is another blowing cave in the Cumberland mountain, about a mile from where it croſſes the Carolina line. All we know of this is, that it is not conſtant, and that a fountain of water iſſues from it.

The Natural Bridge is the moſt ſublime of nature's works. It is on the aſcent of a hill, which ſeems to have been cloven through its length by ſome great convulſion. The fiſſure, juſt at the bridge, is by ſome admeaſurements, two hundred and ſeventy feet deep, by others only two hundred and five. It is about forty-five feet wide at the bottom, and ninety feet at the top; this of courſe determines the length of the bridge, and its height from the water. Its breadth in the middle is about ſixty feet, but more at the ends, and the thickneſs of the maſs at the ſummit of the arch about forty feet. A part of this thickneſs is conſtituted by a coat of earth, which gives growth to many large trees. The reſidue, with the hill on both ſides, is ſolid rock of lime-ſtone. The arch approaches the ſemi-elliptical form; but the larger axis of the ellipſis, which would be the cord of the arch, is many times longer than the tranſverſe. Though the ſides of this bridge are provided in ſome parts with a parapet of fixed rocks, yet few men have reſolution to walk to them and look over into the abyſs. You involuntarily fall on your hands and feet, creep to the parapet and peep over it. If the view from the top be painful and intolerable, that from below is delightful in an equal extreme. It is impoſſible for the emotions ariſing from the ſublime, to be felt beyond what they are here: ſo beautiful an arch, ſo elevated, ſo light, and ſpringing as it were up to Heaven, the rapture of the ſpectator is really indeſcribable! The fiſſure continuing narrow, deep, and ſtraight, for a conſiderable diſtance above and below the bridge, opens a ſhort but very pleaſing view of the North mountain on one ſide, and Blue Ridge on the other, at the diſtance each of them of about five miles. This bridge is in the county of Rockbridge, to which it has given name, and affords a public and commodious paſſage over a valley, which cannot be croſſed elſewhere for a conſiderable diſtance. The ſtream paſſing under it is called Cedar Creek. It is a water of James river, and ſufficient in the drieſt ſeaſons to turn a griſt mill, though its fountain is not more than two miles above.* There is a natural bridge ſimilar to the above over Stock Creek, a branch of Peleſon river, in Waſhington county.

Mines and Minerals.] Virginia is the moſt pregnant with minerals and foſſils of any State in the Union. A ſingle lump of gold ore has been found, near the falls of Rappahannock river, which yielded 17 dwt. of gold, of extraordinary ductility. No other indication of gold has been diſcovered in its neighbourhood.

On the great Kanhawa, oppoſite to the mouth of Cripple Creek, and alſo about twenty-five miles from the ſouthern boundary of the State, in the county of Montgo-

* Don Ulloa mentions a break, ſimilar to this, in the province of Angaraez, in South America. It is from ſixteen to twenty-two feet wide, one hundred and eleven deep, and of one mile and three quarters continuance, Engliſh meaſure. Its breadth at top is not ſenſibly greater than at bottom.

mery, are mines of lead. The metal is mixed, ſometimes with earth, and ſometimes with rock, which requires the force of gunpowder to open it; and is accompanied with a portion of ſilver, too ſmall to be worth ſeparation under any proceſs hitherto attempted there. The proportion yielded is from 50 to 80 lb. of pure metal from 100 lb. of waſhed ore. The moſt common is that of 60 to the 100 lb. The veins are at ſometimes moſt flattering; at others they diſappear ſuddenly and totally. They enter the ſide of the hill, and proceed horizontally. Two of them have been wrought by the public. Theſe would employ about fifty labourers to advantage. Thirty men, who have at the ſame time raiſed their own corn, have produced ſixty tons of lead in the year; but the general quantity is from twenty to twenty-five tons. The preſent furnace is a mile from the ore bank, and on the oppoſite ſide of the river. The ore is firſt waggoned to the river, a quarter of a mile, then laden on board of canoes and carried acroſs the river, which is there about two hundred yards wide, and then again taken into waggons and carried to the furnace. This mode was originally adopted, that they might avail themſelves of a good ſituation on a creek, for a pounding mill; but it would be eaſy to have the furnace and pounding mill on the ſame ſide of the river, which would yield water, without any dam, by a canal of about half a mile in length. From the furnace the lead is tranſported one hundred and thirty miles along a good road, leading through the peaks of Otter to Lynch's ferry, or Winſton's, on James river, from whence it is carried by water about the ſame diſtance to Weſtham. This land carriage may be greatly ſhortened, by delivering the lead on James river, above the Blue Ridge, from whence a ton weight has been brought in two canoes. The Great Kanhawa has conſiderable falls in the neighbourhood of the mines. About ſeven miles below are three falls, of three or four feet perpendicular each: and three miles above is a rapid of three miles continuance, which has been compared in its deſcent to the great fall of James river; yet it is the opinion, that they may be laid open for uſeful navigation, ſo as to reduce very much the portage between the Kanhawa and James river.

A mine of copper was opened in the county of Amherſt, on the north ſide of James river, and another in the oppoſite county, on the ſouth ſide. However, either from bad management or the poverty of the veins, they were diſcontinued. A few years ago there were ſix iron mines worked in this State. Two of them made about one hundred and fifty tons bar iron each; the others made each from ſix hundred to one thouſand ſix hundred tons of pig iron annually. Beſides theſe, a forge at Frederickſburgh, made about three hundred tons a year of bar iron, from pigs imported from Maryland; and a forge on Neapſco of Patomak, worked in the ſame way. The indications of iron in other places are numerous, and diſperſed through all the middle country. The toughneſs of the caſt iron of ſome of the furnaces is very remarkable. Pots and other utenſils, caſt thinner than uſual, of this iron, may be ſafely thrown into or out of the waggons in which they are tranſported. Salt pans made of the ſame, and no longer wanted for that purpoſe, cannot be broken up in order to be melted again, unleſs previouſly drilled in many parts.

In the weſtern part of the State we are told of iron mines on Cheſnut Creek, a branch of the Great Kanhawa, near where it croſſes the Carolina line; and in other places.

Conſiderable quantities of black lead are taken occaſionally for uſe from Winterham, in the county of Amelia. There is no work eſtabliſhed at it, thoſe who want, going and procuring it for themſelves.

The country on both ſides of James river, from fifteen to twenty miles above Richmond, and for ſeveral miles northward and ſouthward, is replete with mineral coal of

of a very excellent quality. Being in the hands of many proprietors, pits have been opened, and worked to an extent equal to the demand. The pits which have been opened lie 150 or 200 feet above the bed of the river, and have been very little incommoded with water. The firſt diſcovery of the coal is ſaid to have been made by a boy, digging after a cray-fiſh; it has alſo been found on the bottom of trees blown up. In many places it lies within three or four feet of the ſurface of the ground. It is conjectured that 500,000 buſhels might be raiſed from one pit in 12 months.

In the weſtern country, coal is known to be in ſo many places, as to have induced an opinion, that the whole tract between the Laurel Mountain, Miſſiſſippi, and Ohio, yields coal. It is alſo known in many places on the north ſide of the Ohio. The coal at Pittſburgh is of a very ſuperior quality: a bed of it at that place has been on fire ſince the year 1765. Another coal hill on the Pike Run of Monongahela has been on fire ten years; yet it has burnt away about 20 yards only.

I have known one inſtance, ſays Mr. Jefferſon, of an emerald found in this country. Amethyſts have been frequent, and chryſtals common; yet not in ſuch numbers any of them as to be worth ſeeking.

There is very good marble, and in very great abundance, on James river, at the mouth of Rockfiſh: ſome white and as pure as one might expect to find on the ſurface of the earth; but generally variegated with red, blue, and purple. None of it has ever been worked: it forms a very large precipice, which hangs over a navigable part of the river.

But one vein of lime-ſtone is known below the Blue Ridge: its firſt appearance is in Prince William, two miles below the Pignut ridge of mountains; thence it paſſes on nearly parallel with that, and croſſes the Rivanna about five miles below it, where it is called the South-weſt Ridge: it then croſſes Hardware, above the mouth of Hudſon's creek, James river, at the mouth of Rockfiſh, at the marble quarry before ſpoken of, probably runs up that river to where it appears again at Roſs's iron works, and ſo paſſes off ſouth-weſtwardly by Flat creek of Otter river: it is never more than 100 yards wide. From the Blue ridge weſtwardly the whole country ſeems to be founded on a rock of lime-ſtone, beſides infinite quantities on the ſurface, both looſe and fixed: this is cut into beds, which range, as the mountains and ſea coaſt do, from ſouth-weſt to north-eaſt.

Medicinal Springs.] There are ſeveral medicinal ſprings, ſome of which are indubitably efficacious, while others ſeem to owe their reputation as much to fancy, and change of air and regimen, as to their real virtues. None of them have undergone a chemical analyſis in ſkilful hands, nor been ſo far the ſubject of obſervations as to have produced a reduction into claſſes of the diſorders which they relieve; it is in my power to give little more than an enumeration of them.

The moſt efficacious of theſe are two ſprings in Auguſta, near the ſources of James river, where it is called Jackſon's river. They riſe near the foot of the ridge of mountains, generally called the Warm ſpring mountain, but in the maps Jackſon's mountains. The one is diſtinguiſhed by the name of the Warm Spring, and the other of the Hot Spring. The warm ſpring iſſues with a very bold ſtream, ſufficient to work a griſt mill, and to keep the waters of its baſon, which is 30 feet in diameter, at the vital warmth, viz. 96° of Fahrenheit's thermometer. The matter with which theſe waters is allied is very volatile; its ſmell indicates it to be ſulphureous, as alſo does the circumſtance of turning ſilver black: they relieve rheumatiſms: other complaints alſo of very different natures have been removed or leſſened by them. It rains here four or five days in every week.

The hot ſpring is about ſix miles from the warm, is much ſmaller, and has been ſo hot as to have boiled an egg. Some believe its degree of heat to be leſſened: it raiſes the mercury in Fahrenheit's thermometer to 112 degrees, which is fever heat: it ſometimes relieves where the warm ſpring fails. A fountain of common water, iſſuing within a few inches of its margin, gives it a ſingular appearance. Comparing the temperature of theſe with that of the hot ſprings of Kamſchatka, of which Krachininnikow gives an account, the difference is very great, the latter riſing the mercury to 209 degrees, which is within 12 degrees of boiling water. Theſe ſprings are very much reſorted to, in ſpite of a total want of accommodation for the ſick. Their waters are ſtrongeſt in the hotteſt months, which occaſions their being viſited in July and Auguſt principally.

The ſweet ſprings are in the county of Botetourt, at the eaſtern foot of the Allegany, about 42 miles from the warm ſprings. They are ſtill leſs known. Having been found to relieve caſes in which the others had been ineffectually tried, it is probable their compoſition is different: they are different alſo in their temperature, being as cold as common water; which is not mentioned, however, as a proof of a diſtinct impregnation. This is among the firſt ſources of James river.

On Patomak river, in Berkeley county, above the North Mountain, are medicinal ſprings, much more frequented than thoſe of Auguſta: their powers, however, are leſs, the waters weakly mineralized, and ſcarcely warm. They are more viſited, becauſe ſituated in a fertile, plentiful, and populous country, provided with better accommodations, always ſafe from the Indians, and neareſt to the more populous States.

In Louiſa county, on the head waters of the South Anna branch of York river, are ſprings of ſome medicinal virtue; they are, however, not much uſed. There is a weak chalybeate at Richmond, and many others in various parts of the country, which are of too little worth, or too little note to be enumerated after thoſe before mentioned.

We are told of a ſulphur ſpring on Howard's creek of green briar. In the low grounds of the Great Kanhawa, ſeven miles above the mouth of Elk river, and 67 above that of the Kanhawa itſelf, is a hole in the earth of the capacity of 30 or 40 gallons, from which iſſues conſtantly a bituminous vapour, in ſo ſtrong a current, as to give to the ſand about its orifice the motion which it has in a boiling ſpring. On preſenting a lighted candle or torch within 18 inches of the hole, it flames up in a column of 18 inches diameter, and four or five feet in height, which ſometimes burns out in 20 minutes, and at other times has been known to continue three days, and then has been left burning. The flame is unſteady, of the denſity of that of burning ſpirits, and ſmells like burning pit coal. Water ſometimes collects in the baſon, which is remarkably cold, and is kept in ebullition by the vapour iſſuing through it; if the vapour be fired in that ſtate, the water ſoon becomes ſo warm that the hand cannot bear it, and evaporates wholly in a ſhort time. This, with the circumjacent lands, is the property of Preſident Waſhington and of General Lewis.

There is a ſimilar one on Sandy river, the flame of which is a column of about 12 inches diameter and three feet high. General Clarke kindled the vapour, ſtaid about an hour, and left it burning.

The mention of uncommon ſprings leads to that of Syphon fountains: there is one of theſe near the interſection of the Lord Fairfax's boundary with the North Mountain, not far from Brock's gap, on the ſtream of which is a griſt mill, which grinds two buſhels of grain at every flood of the ſpring. Another near the Cow Paſture river, a mile and a half below its confluence with the Bull Paſture river, and 16 or 17 miles

from the Hot Springs, which intermits once in every twelve hours. One alſo near the mouth of the North Holſton.

After theſe may be mentioned, the Natural Well on the lands of a Mr. Lewis, in Frederick county: it is ſomewhat larger than a common well; the water riſes in it as near the ſurface of the earth as in the neighbouring artificial wells, and is of a depth as yet unknown. It is ſaid, there is a current in it tending ſenſibly downwards; if this be true, it probably feeds ſome fountain, of which it is the natural reſervoir, diſtinguiſhed from others, like that of Madiſon's cave, by being acceſſible: it is uſed with a bucket and windlaſs as an ordinary well.

POPULATION.] See table.

MILITIA.] Every able-bodied freeman, between the ages of 16 and 50, is enrolled in the militia. Thoſe of every county are formed into companies, and theſe again into one or more battalions, according to the numbers in the county: they are commanded by colonels, and other ſubordinate officers, as in the regular ſervice. In every county is a county lieutenant, who commands the whole militia in his county, but ranks only as a colonel in the field. They have no general officers always exiſting: theſe are appointed occaſionally, when an invaſion or inſurrection happens, and their commiſſion determines with the occaſion. The governor is head of the military as well as civil power. The law requires every militia-man to provide himſelf with the arms uſual in the regular ſervice. But this injunction was always indifferently complied with, and the arms they had have been ſo frequently called for to arm the regulars, that in the lower parts of the country they are entirely diſarmed. In the middle country a fourth or fifth part of them may have ſuch firelocks as they had provided to deſtroy the noxious animals which infeſt their farms; and on the weſtern ſide of the Blue Ridge they are generally armed with rifles.

The interſection of Virginia, by ſo many navigable rivers, renders it almoſt incapable of defence: as the land will not ſupport a great number of people, a force cannot ſoon be collected to repel a ſudden invaſion. If the militia bear the ſame proportion to the number of inhabitants now, as in 1782, they amount to about 68,000.

CHIEF TOWNS.] They have no townſhips in this State, nor any towns of conſequence, owing probably to the interſection of the country by navigable rivers, which brings the trade to the doors of the inhabitants, and prevents the neceſſity of their going in queſt of it to a diſtance.

WILLIAMSBURGH, which till the year 1780 was the ſeat of government, never contained above 1800 inhabitants, and Norfolk, the moſt populous town they ever had in Virginia, contained but 6000. The towns, or more properly villages or hamlets, are as follows:

On James river and its waters—Norfolk, Portſmouth, Hampton, Suffolk, Smithfield, Williamſburg, Peterſburg, Richmond, the ſeat of government, Mancheſter, Charlotteſville, New London.—On York river and its waters, York, Newcaſtle, Hanover.—On Rappahannock, Urbanna, Port Royal, Frederickſburg, Falmouth.—On Patomak and its waters, Dumfries, Colcheſter, Alexandria, Wincheſter, Staunton.

There are places at which, like ſome of the foregoing, the laws have ſaid there ſhall be towns, but nature has ſaid there ſhall not; and they remain unworthy of enumeration. Norfolk will probably become the emporium for all the trade of the Cheſapeak Bay and its waters; and a canal of eight or ten miles, which is contemplated, and will probably ſoon be completed, will bring it to all that of Albemarle ſound and its waters. Secondary to this place, are the towns at the head of the tide waters, to wit, Peterſburg on Appamattox, Richmond on James river, Newcaſtle on York river, Frederickſburgh

derickſburgh on Rappahannock, and Alexandria on Patomak. From theſe the diſtribution will be to ſubordinate ſituations of the country. Accidental circumſtances however may control the indications of nature, and in no inſtances do they do it more frequently than in the riſe and fall of towns.

To the foregoing general account, we add the following more particular deſcriptions:

Alexandria ſtands on the ſouth bank of Patomak river in Fairfax county: its ſituation is elevated and pleaſant; the ſoil is clay. The original ſettlers, anticipating its future growth and importance, laid out the ſtreets upon the plan of Philadelphia. It contains about 400 houſes, many of which are handſomely built, and nearly 3000 inhabitants. This town, upon opening the navigation of Patomak river, and in conſequence of its vicinity to the city of Waſhington, will probably be one of the moſt thriving commercial places on the continent.

Mount Vernon, the celebrated ſeat of Preſident Waſhington, is pleaſantly ſituated on the Virginia bank of the river Patomak, where it is nearly two miles wide, and is about 280 miles from the ſea, and 127 from Point Look-out, at the mouth of the river. It is nine miles below Alexandria, and four above the beautiful ſeat of the late Colonel Fairfax, called Bellevoir. The area of the mount is 200 feet above the ſurface of the river, and, after furniſhing a lawn of five acres in front, and about the ſame in rear of the buildings, falls off rather abruptly on thoſe two quarters. On the north end it ſubſides gradually into extenſive paſture grounds; while on the ſouth it ſlopes more ſteeply in a ſhorter diſtance, and terminates with the coach-houſe, ſtables, vineyard, and nurſeries. On either wing is a thick grove of different flowering foreſt trees. Parallel with them, on the land ſide, are two ſpacious gardens, into which one is led by two ſerpentine gravel walks, planted with weeping willows and ſhady ſhrubs. The manſion houſe itſelf (though much embelliſhed by, yet not perfectly ſatisfactory to the chaſte taſte of the preſent poſſeſſor) appears venerable and convenient. The ſuperb banquetting room has been finiſhed ſince he returned home from the army. A loſty portico, 96 feet in length, ſupported by eight pillars, has a pleaſing effect when viewed from the water; the whole aſſemblage of the green-houſe, ſchool-houſe, offices and ſervants' halls, when ſeen from the land ſide, bears a reſemblance to a rural village; eſpecially as the lands on that ſide are laid out ſomewhat in the form of Engliſh gardens, in meadows and graſs grounds, ornamented with little copſes, circular clumps, and ſingle trees. A ſmall park on the margin of the river, where the Engliſh fallow-deer, and the American wild deer are ſeen through the thickets, alternately with the veſſels as they are ſailing along, add a romantic and pictureſque appearance to the whole ſcenery. On the oppoſite ſide of a ſmall creek to the northward, an extenſive plain, exhibiting corn-fields and cattle grazing, affords in ſummer a luxuriant landſcape; while the blended verdure of woodlands and cultivated declivities, on the Maryland ſhore, variegates the proſpect in a charming manner. Such are the philoſophic ſhades to which the late Commander in Chief of the American armies retired from the tumultuous ſcenes of a buſy world, and which he has ſince left to dignify, by his unequalled abilities, the moſt important office in the gift of his fellow citizens.

Fredericksburgh, in the county of Spotſylvania, is ſituated on the ſouth ſide of Rappahannock river, 110 miles from its mouth; and contains about 200 houſes, principally on one ſtreet, which runs nearly parallel with the river, and 1500 inhabitants.

Richmond, in the county of Henrico, is the preſent ſeat of government, and ſtands on the north ſide of James river, juſt at the foot of the falls, and contains between 400 and 500 houſes, and nearly 4000 inhabitants. Part of the houſes are built upon the

margin of the river, convenient for buſineſs; the reſt are upon a hill which overlooks the lower part of the town, and commands an extenſive proſpect of the river and adjacent country. The new houſes are well built. A large ſtate-houſe, or capitol, has lately been erected on the hill. The lower part of the town is divided by a creek, over which is a convenient bridge. A bridge between 300 and 400 yards in length, has lately been thrown acroſs James river at the foot of the fall, by Colonel Mayo. That part from Mancheſter to the iſland is built on fifteen boats. From the iſland to the rocks was formerly a floating bridge of rafts, but Colonel Mayo has now built it of framed log piers, filled with ſtone. From the rocks to the landing at Richmond, the bridge is continued on framed piers filled with ſtone. This bridge connects Richmond with Mancheſter; and as the paſſengers pay toll, it produces a handſome revenue to Colonel Mayo, who is the ſole proprietor.

The falls above the bridge are ſeven miles in length. A noble canal is cutting and nearly completed on the north ſide of the river, which is to terminate in a baſon of about two acres, in the town of Richmond. From this baſon to the wharves in the river will be a land carriage of about a mile. This canal is cutting under the direction of a company, who have calculated the expenſe at 30,000l. Virginia money: this they have divided into 500 ſhares of 60l. each. The opening of this canal promiſes the addition of much wealth to Richmond.

PETERSBURGH, 25 miles ſouthward of Richmond, ſtands on the ſouth ſide of Appamattox river, and contains upwards of 300 houſes in two diviſions; one is upon a clay cold ſoil, and is very dirty, the other upon a plain of ſand or loam. There is no regularity and very little elegance in Peterſburgh, it is merely a place of buſineſs. The Free Maſons have a hall tolerably elegant. It is very unhealthy,* being ſhut out from the acceſs of the winds by high hills on every ſide. This confined ſituation has ſuch an effect upon the conſtitutions of the inhabitants, that they very nearly reſemble thoſe of hard drinkers; hence, in the opinion of phyſicians, they require a conſiderable quantity of ſtimulating aliments and vinous drinks to keep up a balance between the ſeveral functions of the body.

About 2200 hogſheads of tobacco are inſpected here annually. Like Richmond, Williamſburgh, Alexandria, and Norfolk, it is a corporation; and what is ſingular, Peterſburgh city comprehends a part of three counties. The celebrated Indian queen, Pocahonta, from whom deſcended the Randolph and Bowling families, formerly reſided at this place. Peterſburgh and its ſuburbs contain about 3000 inhabitants.

WILLIAMSBURGH is 60 miles eaſtward of Richmond, ſituated between two creeks; one falling into James, the other into York river. The diſtance of each landing place is about a mile from the town, which, with the diſadvantage of not being able to bring up large veſſels, and want of enterprize in the inhabitants, are the reaſons why it never flouriſhed: it conſiſts of about 200 houſes, going faſt to decay, and has about 1400 inhabitants: it is regularly laid out in parallel ſtreets, with a ſquare in the center, through which runs the principal ſtreet, E. and W. about a mile in length, and more than 100 feet wide. At the ends of this ſtreet are two public buildings, the college and capitol: beſides theſe, there is an epiſcopal church, a priſon, a hoſpital for lunatics, and the palace; all of them extremely indifferent. In the capitol is a large marble ſtatue, in the likeneſs of Narbone Berkley, Lord Botetourt, a man diſtinguiſhed for his love of piety, literature, and good government, and formerly governor of Vir-

* It is aſſerted, as an undoubted fact, by a number of gentlemen well acquainted with this town, that, in 1781, "one child only born in it had arrived to manhood, and he was a cripple."

ginia: it was erected at the expenſe of the State, ſome time ſince the year 1771. The capitol is little better than in ruins, and this elegant ſtatue is expoſed to the rudeneſs of negroes and boys, and is ſhamefully defaced.

Every thing in Williamſburgh appears dull, forſaken, and melancholy; no trade; no amuſement, but the infamous one of gaming; no induſtry, and very little appearance of religion. The unproſperous ſtate of the college, but principally the removal of the ſeat of government, have contributed much to the decline of this city.

Yorktown, 13 miles eaſtward from Williamſburgh, and 14 from Monday's point at the mouth of the river, is a place of about 100 houſes, ſituated on the ſouth ſide of York river, and contains about 700 inhabitants. It was rendered famous by the capture of Lord Cornwallis and his army, on the 19th of October, 1781, by the united forces of France and America.

Colleges, Academies, &c.] The college of William and Mary was founded in the time of King William and Queen Mary, who granted to it 20,000 acres of land, and a penny a pound duty on certain tobaccos exported from Virginia and Maryland, which had been levied by the ſtatute of 25 Car. II. The aſſembly alſo gave it, by temporary laws, a duty on liquors imported, and ſkins and furs exported. From theſe reſources it received upwards of 3000l. The buildings are of brick, ſufficient for an indifferent accommodation of perhaps 100 ſtudents. By its charter it was to be under the government of 20 viſitors, who were to be its legiſlators, and to have a preſident and ſix profeſſors, who were incorporated: it was allowed a repreſentative in the General Aſſembly. Under this charter, a profeſſorſhip of the Greek and Latin languages, a profeſſorſhip of mathematics, one of moral philoſophy, and two of divinity, were eſtabliſhed. To theſe were annexed, for a ſixth profeſſorſhip, a conſiderable donation by a Mr. Boyle of England, for the inſtruction of the Indians, and their converſion to Chriſtianity: this was called the profeſſorſhip of Brafferton, from an eſtate of that name in England, purchaſed with the monies given. The admiſſion of the learners of Latin and Greek filled the college with children: this rendering it diſagreeable and degrading to young gentlemen already prepared for entering on the ſciences, they were diſcouraged from reſorting to it, and thus the ſchools for mathematics and moral philoſophy, which might have been of ſome ſervice, became of very little. The revenues too were exhauſted in accommodating thoſe who came only to acquire the rudiments of ſcience. After the preſent revolution, the viſitors having no power to change thoſe circumſtances in the conſtitution of the college which were fixed by the charter, and being therefore confined in the number of profeſſorſhips, undertook to change the objects of the profeſſorſhips. They excluded the two ſchools for divinity, and that for the Greek and Latin languages, and ſubſtituted others; ſo that at preſent they ſtand thus—A profeſſorſhip for law and police; anatomy and medicine; natural philoſophy and mathematics; moral philoſophy, the law of nature and nations, the fine arts; modern languages; for the Brafferton.

Meaſures have been taken to increaſe the number of profeſſorſhips, as well for the purpoſe of ſubdividing thoſe already inſtituted, as of adding others for other branches of ſcience. To the profeſſorſhips uſually eſtabliſhed in the univerſities of Europe, it would ſeem proper to add one for the ancient languages and literature of the north, on account of their connection with our own language, laws, cuſtoms, and hiſtory. The purpoſes of the Brafferton inſtitution would be better anſwered by maintaining a perpetual miſſion among the Indian tribes, the object of which, beſides inſtructing them in the principles of Chriſtianity, as the founder requires, ſhould be to collect their traditions, laws, cuſtoms, languages, and other circumſtances which might lead to a diſcovery

diſcovery of their relation to one another, or deſcent from other nations. When theſe objects are accompliſhed with one tribe, the miſſionary might paſs on to another.

The college edifice is a huge, miſhapen pile; "which but that it has a root, would be taken for a brick kiln." In 1787, there about thirty young gentlemen members of this college, a large proportion of which were law ſtudents. The academy in Prince Edward county has been erected into a college by the name of Hampden Sydney college. It has been a flouriſhing ſeminary, but is now ſaid to be on the decline.

There are ſeveral academies in Virginia; one at Alexandria, one at Norfolk, and others in other places.

Since the declaration of independence the laws of Virginia have been reviſed by a committee appointed for the purpoſe, who have reported their work to the Aſſembly; one object of this reviſal was to diffuſe knowledge more generally through the maſs of the people. The bill for this purpoſe "propoſes to lay off every county into ſmall diſtricts of five or ſix miles ſquare, called hundreds, and in each of them to eſtabliſh a ſchool for teaching reading, writing, and arithmetic. The tutor to be ſupported by the hundred, and all perſons in it entitled to ſend their children three years gratis, and as much longer as they pleaſe, paying for it. Theſe ſchools to be under a viſitor, who is annually to chuſe the boy of beſt genius in the ſchool, of thoſe whoſe parents are too poor to give them further education, and to ſend him forward to one of the grammar ſchools, of which twenty are propoſed to be erected in different parts of the country, for teaching Greek, Latin, Geography, and the higher branches of numerical arithmetic. Of the boys thus ſent in any one year, trial is to be made at the grammar ſchools, one or two years, and the beſt genius of the whole ſelected and continued ſix years, and the reſidue diſmiſſed; by this means twenty of the beſt geniuſſes will be raked from the rubbiſh annually, and inſtructed, at the public expenſe, ſo far as the grammar ſchools go. At the end of ſix years inſtruction, one half are to be diſcontinued (from among whom the grammar ſchools will probably be ſupplied with future maſters), and the other half, who are to be choſen for the ſuperiority of their parts and diſpoſition, are to be ſent and continued three years in the ſtudy of ſuch ſciences as they ſhall chuſe, at William and Mary college, the plan of which is propoſed to be enlarged, as will be hereafter explained, and extended to all the uſeful ſciences. The ultimate reſult of the whole ſcheme of education would be the teaching all the children of the State reading, writing, and common arithmetic; turning out ten annually of ſuperior genius, well taught in Greek, Latin, Geography, and the higher branches of arithmetic; turning out ten others annually, of ſtill ſuperior parts, who, to thoſe branches of learning, ſhall have added ſuch of the ſciences as their genius ſhall have led them to; the furniſhing to the wealthier part of the people convenient ſchools, at which their children may be educated, at their own expenſe. The general objects of this law are to provide an education adapted to the years, to the capacity, and the condition of every one, and directed to their freedom and happineſs. Specific details were not proper for the law: theſe muſt be the buſineſs of the viſitors entruſted with its execution. The firſt ſtage of this education being the ſchools of the hundreds, wherein the great maſs of the people will receive their inſtruction, the principal foundations of future order will be laid here. The firſt elements of morality may be inſtilled into their minds; ſuch as, when further developed as their judgements advance in ſtrength, may teach them how to promote their own greateſt happineſs, by ſhewing them that it does not depend on the condition of life in which chance has placed them, but is always the reſult of a good conſcience, good health, occupation, and freedom in all juſt purſuits. Thoſe whom either the wealth of their parents, or the adoption of the State, ſhall

ſhall deſtine to higher degrees of learning, will go on to the grammar ſchools, which conſtitute the next ſtage, there to be inſtructed in the languages. As ſoon as they are of a ſufficient age, it is ſuppoſed they will be ſent on from the grammar ſchools to the univerſity, which conſtitutes the third and laſt ſtage, there to ſtudy thoſe ſciences which may be adapted to their views. By that part of the plan which preſcribes the ſelection of the youths of genius from among the claſſes of the poor, the State will avail itſelf of thoſe talents which nature has ſown as liberally among the poor as the rich, but which periſh without uſe, if not ſought for and cultivated. But of all the views of this law none is more important, none more legitimate, than that of rendering the people the ſafe, as they are the ultimate, guardians of their own liberty: for this purpoſe, the reading in the firſt ſtage, where they will receive their whole education, is propoſed, as has been ſaid, to be chiefly hiſtorical. Hiſtory, by appriſing them of the paſt, will enable them to judge of the future; it will avail them of the experience of other times and other nations; it will qualify them as judges of the actions and deſigns of men; it will enable them to know ambition under every diſguiſe it may aſſume; and knowing it, to defeat its views. In every government on earth is ſome trace of human weakneſs, ſome germ of corruption and degeneracy, which cunning will diſcover, and wickedneſs inſenſibly open, cultivate, and improve. Every government degenerates when truſted to the rulers of the people alone: the people themſelves therefore are its only ſafe depoſitories; and to render even them ſafe, their minds muſt be improved to a certain degree: this indeed is not all that is neceſſary, though it be eſſentially neceſſary. The influence over government muſt be ſhared among all the people. If every individual, which compoſes their maſs, participates of the ultimate authority, the government will be ſafe; becauſe the corrupting the whole maſs will exceed any private reſources of wealth; and public ones cannot be provided but by levies on the people: in this caſe every man would have to pay his own price. The government of Great Britain has been corrupted, becauſe but one man in ten has a right to vote for members of parliament. The ſellers of the government therefore get nine-tenths of their price clear.

The excellent meaſures for the diffuſion of uſeful knowledge, which the foremention bill propoſes, have not yet been carried into effect. And it will be happy if the great inequality in the circumſtances of the citizens; the pride, the independence, and the indolence of one claſs; and the poverty and depreſſion of the other, do not prove inſuperable difficulties in the way of their univerſal operation.

Religion.] The firſt ſettlers in this country were emigrants from England, of the Engliſh church, juſt at a point of time when it was fluſhed with complete victory over the religious of all other perſuaſions. Poſſeſſed, as they became, of the powers of making, adminiſtering, and executing the laws, they ſhewed equal intolerance in this country with their Preſbyterian brethren, who had emigrated to the northern government. The Quakers were flying from perſecution in England: they caſt their eyes on theſe new countries, as aſylums of civil and religious freedom; but they found them free only for the reigning ſect. Several acts of the Virginia aſſembly of 1659, 1662, and 1663, had made it penal in their parents to refuſe to have their children baptized; had prohibited the unlawful aſſembling of Quakers; had made it penal for any maſter of a veſſel to bring a Quaker into the State; had ordered thoſe already here, and ſuch as ſhould come thereafter, to be impriſoned till they ſhould abjure the country; provided a milder puniſhment for their firſt and ſecond return, but death for the third; had inhibited all perſons from ſuffering their meetings in or near their houſes, entertaining them individually, or diſpoſing of books which ſupported their tenets. If no capital execution

took place here, as did in New England, it was not owing to the moderation of the church, or ſpirit of the legiſlature, as may be inferred from the law itſelf; but to hiſtorical circumſtances which have not been handed down to us. The Epiſcopalians retained full poſſeſſion of the country about a century. Other opinions began to creep in; and the great care of the government to ſupport their own church, having begotten an equal degree of indolence in its clergy, two-thirds of the people had become diſſenters at the commencement of the preſent revolution. The laws, indeed, were ſtill oppreſſive on them, but the ſpirit of the one party had ſubſided into moderation, and of the other had riſen to a degree of determination which commanded reſpect.

The preſent denominations of Chriſtians in Virginia are Preſbyterians, who are the moſt numerous, and inhabit the weſtern parts of the State; Epiſcopalians, who are the moſt ancient ſettlers, and occupy the eaſtern and firſt ſettled parts of the State. Intermingled with theſe are great numbers of Baptiſts and Methodiſts.

Character, Manners, and Customs.] Virginia prides itſelf in being "The Ancient Dominion." It has produced ſome of the moſt diſtinguiſhed and influential men that have been active in effecting the two late grand and important revolutions in America. Her political and military character will rank among the firſt in the page of hiſtory: but it is to be obſerved, that this character has been obtained for the Virginians by a few eminent men, who have taken the lead in all their public tranſactions, and who, in ſhort, govern Virginia; for the great body of the people do not concern themſelves with politics; ſo that their government, though nominally republican, is, in fact, oligarchal or ariſtocratical.

The Virginians, who are rich, are in general ſenſible, polite, and hoſpitable, and of an independent ſpirit. The poor are ignorant and abject, and all are of an inquiſitive turn. A conſiderable proportion of the people are much addicted to gaming, drinking, ſwearing, horſe-racing, cock-fighting, and moſt kinds of diſſipation. There is a much greater diſparity between the rich and the poor, in Virginia, than in any of the northern States. The native inhabitants are too generally unacquainted with buſineſs, owing to their pride, and falſe notions of greatneſs. Before the revolution they conſidered it as beneath a gentleman to attend to mercantile matters, and devoted their time principally to amuſement. By theſe means the Scotch people and other foreigners who came among them, became their merchants, and ſuddenly grew rich. The influence of ſlavery here is equally pernicious to the morals of the citizens as in the other ſouthern States.

Constitution, Courts, and Laws.] The executive powers are lodged in the hands of a governor, choſen annually, and incapable of acting more than three years in ſeven. He is aſſiſted by a council of eight members. The judiciary powers are divided among ſeveral courts, as will be hereafter explained. Legiſlation is exerciſed by two houſes of Aſſembly, the one called the Houſe of Delegates, compoſed of two members from each county, choſen annually by the citizens, poſſeſſing an eſtate for life in 100 acres of uninhabited land, or twenty-five acres with a houſe on it, or in a houſe or lot in ſome town; the other called the Senate, conſiſting of twenty-four members choſen quadrennially by the ſame electors, who for this purpoſe are diſtributed into twenty-four diſtricts. The concurrence of both houſes is neceſſary to the paſſing of a law. They have the appointment of the governor and council, the judges of the ſuperior courts, auditors, attorney-general, treaſurer, regiſter of the land office.

This conſtitution was the firſt that was formed in the whole United States.

There

There are three ſuperior courts, to which appeals lie from the courts below, to wit, the high court of chancery, the general court, and court of admiralty. The firſt and ſecond of theſe receive appeals from the county courts, and alſo have original juriſdiction where the ſubject of controverſy is of the value of ten pounds ſterling, or where it concerns the title or bounds of land. The juriſdiction of the admiralty is original altogether. The high court of chancery is compoſed of three judges, the general court of five, and the court of admiralty of three. The two firſt hold their ſeſſions at Richmond at ſtated times, the chancery twice in the year, and the general court twice for buſineſs civil and criminal, and twice more for criminal only. The court of admiralty ſits at Williamſburgh whenever a controverſy ariſes.

There is one ſupreme court, called the Court of Appeals, compoſed of the judges of the three ſuperior courts, aſſembling twice a year at ſtated times at Richmond. This court receives appeals in all civil caſes from each of the ſuperior courts, and determines them finally. But it has no original juriſdiction.

All public accounts are ſettled with a board of auditors, conſiſting of three members appointed by the General Aſſembly, any two of whom may act. But an individual, diſſatisfied with the determination of that board, may carry his caſe into the proper ſuperior court.

In 1661, the laws of England were expreſsly adopted by an act of the Aſſembly of Virginia, except ſo far as a "difference of condition" render them inapplicable. To theſe were added a number of acts of Aſſembly paſſed during the monarchy, and ordinances of convention, and acts of Aſſembly ſince the eſtabliſhment of the republic. The following variations from the Britiſh model are worthy of notice:

Debtors unable to pay their debts, and making faithful delivery of their whole effects, are releaſed from their confinement, and their perſons for ever diſcharged from reſtraint for ſuch previous debts: but any property they may afterwards acquire will be ſubject to their creditors. The poor, unable to ſupport themſelves, are maintained by an aſſeſſment on the titheable perſons in their pariſh. A foreigner of any nation, not in open war, becomes naturalized by removing to the State to reſide, and taking an oath of fidelity; and thereby acquires every right of a native citizen. Slaves paſs by deſcent and dower as lands do. Slaves, as well as lands, were entailable during the monarchy: but, by an act of the firſt republican Aſſembly, all donees in tail, preſent and future, were veſted with the abſolute dominion of the entailed ſubject. Gaming debts are made void, and monies actually paid to diſcharge ſuch debts (if they exceed forty ſhillings) may be recovered by the payer within three months, or by any other perſon afterwards. Tobacco, flour, beef, pork, tar, pitch, and turpentine, muſt be inſpected by perſons publicly appointed before they can be exported.

In 1785, the Aſſembly enacted, that no man ſhould be compelled to ſupport any religious worſhip, place, or miniſter whatſoever, nor be enforced, reſtrained, moleſted, or burdened in his body or goods, nor otherwiſe ſuffer on account of his religious opinions or belief; but that all men ſhould be free to profeſs, and by argument to maintain, their opinion in matters of religion; and that the ſame ſhould in no wiſe diminiſh, enlarge, or affect their civil capacities.

In October 1786, an act was paſſed by the Aſſembly prohibiting the importation of ſlaves into the Commonwealth, upon penalty of the forfeiture of the ſum of 1000l. for every ſlave. And every ſlave imported contrary to the true intent and meaning of this act, becomes free.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] Before the war, the inhabitants of this State paid but little attention to the manufacture of their own clothing. It has been

thought they uſed to import as much as *ſeven-eighths* of their clothing, and that they now manufacture *three-quarters* of it. We have before mentioned that conſiderable quantities of iron are manufactured in this State. To theſe we may add the manufacture of lead; beſides which they have few others of conſequence. The people are much attached to agriculture and prefer foreign manufactures.

Before the war this State exported, *communibus annis*, according to the beſt information that could be obtained, as follows:

TABLE.

Articles.	Quantity.		Amount in Dollars.
Tobacco	55,000	hhds. of 100lb.	1,650,000
Wheat	800,000	buſhels	666,666⅔
Indian corn	600,000	buſhels	200,000
Shipping	—	—	100,000
Maſts, planks, ſkantling, ſhingles, ſtaves	—	—	66,666⅔
Tar, pitch, turpentine	30,000	barrels	40,000
Peltry, viz. ſkins of deer, beavers, otters, muſk rats, racoons, foxes	180	hhds. of 600lb.	42,000
Pork	4,000	barrels	40,000
Flax-ſeed, hemp, cotton	—	—	8,000
Pit coal, pig iron	—	—	6,666⅔
Peas	5,000	buſhels	3,333⅓
Beef	1,000	barrels	3,333⅓
Sturgeon, white ſhad, herring	—	—	3,333⅓
Brandy from peaches and apples, and whiſkey	—	—	1,666⅔
Horſes	—	—	1,666⅔
			2,833,333⅓

This ſum is equal to 850,000l. Virginia money, 657,142 guineas.

The amount of exports from this State in the year ſucceeding October 1, 1790, conſiſting chiefly of articles mentioned in the foregoing table, was 3,131,227 dollars. About 40,000 hogſheads of tobacco only were exported this year.

In the year 1758, this State exported ſeventy thouſand hogſheads of tobacco, which was the greateſt quantity ever produced in this country in one year. But its culture has faſt declined ſince the commencement of the war, and that of wheat taken its place. The price which it commands at market will not enable the planter to cultivate it. Were the ſupply ſtill to depend on Virginia and Maryland alone, as its culture becomes more difficult, this price would riſe, ſo as to enable the planter to ſurmount thoſe difficulties and to live. But the weſtern country on the Miſſiſſippi, and the midlands of Georgia, have freſh and fertile lands in abundance, and a hotter ſun, are able to underſell theſe two States, and will oblige them in time to abandon the raiſing tobacco altogether. And a happy obligation for them it will be. It is a culture productive of infinite wretchedneſs. Thoſe employed in it are in a continued ſtate of exertion beyond the powers of nature to ſupport. Little food of any kind is raiſed by them; ſo that the men and animals on theſe farms are badly fed, and the earth is rapidly

rapidly impoverished. The cultivation of wheat is the reverse in every circumstance. Besides clothing the earth with herbage, and preserving its fertility, it feeds the labourers plentifully, requires from them only a moderate toil, except in the season of harvest, raises great numbers of animals for food and service, and diffuses plenty and happiness among the whole. It is easier to make an hundred bushels of wheat than a thousand weight of tobacco, and they are worth more when made,

It is not easy to say what are the articles either of necessity, comfort, or luxury, which cannot be raised here, as every thing hardier than the olive, and as hardy as the fig, may be raised in the open air. Sugar, coffee, and tea, indeed, are not between these limits; and habit having placed them among the necessaries of life with the wealthy, as long as these habits remain, they must go for them to those countries which are able to furnish them.

History.] We have already given a brief historical account of the first settlement of Virginia, till the arrival of Lord Delaware in 1610. His arrival with a fresh supply of settlers and provisions revived the drooping spirits of the former company, and gave permanency and respectability to the settlement.

In April 1613, Mr. John Rolf, a worthy young gentleman, was married to *Pocahontas*, the daughter of *Powhatan*, the famous Indian chief. This connection, which was very agreable both to the English and Indians, was the foundation of a friendly and advantageous commerce between them.

In 1616, Mr. Rolf, with his wife Pocahontas, visited England, where she was treated with that attention and respect which she had merited by her important services to the colony in Virginia. She died the year following at Gravesend, in the 22d year of her age, just as she was about to embark for America. She had embraced the Christian religion; and in her life and death evidenced the sincerity of her profession. She left a little son, who, having received his education in England, came over to Virginia, where he lived and died in affluence and honour, leaving behind him an only daughter. Her descendants are among the most respectable families in Virginia.

Tomocomo, a sensible Indian, brother-in-law to Pocahontas, accompanied her to England; and was directed by Powhatan to bring him an exact account of the numbers and strength of the English. For this purpose, when he arrived at Plymouth, he took a long stick, intending to cut a notch in it for every person he should see. This he soon found impracticable, and threw away his stick. On his return, being asked by Powhatan, how many people there were, he is said to have replied, "Count the stars in the sky, the leaves on the trees, and the sands on the sea shore; for such is the number of the people in England."

In pursuance of the authorities given to the company by their several charters, and more especially of that part in the charter of 1609, which authorised them to establish a form of government, they, on the 24th of July, 1621, by charter under their common seal, declared, That from thenceforward there should be two supreme councils in Virginia, the one to be called the Council of State, to be placed and displaced by the treasurer, council in England, and company, from time to time, whose office was to be that of assisting and advising the governor; the other to be called the General Assembly, to be convened by the governor once yearly, or oftener, which was to consist of the council of state, and two burgesses out of every town, hundred, or plantation, to be respectively chosen by the inhabitants. In this all matters were to be decided by the greater part of the votes present; reserving to the governor a negative voice; and they were to have power to treat, consult, and conclude all emergent occasions con-

cerning the public weal, and to make laws for the behoof and government of the colony, imitating and following the laws and policy of England as nearly as might be: provided that these laws should have no force till ratified in a general quarter court of the company in England, and returned under their common seal, and declaring that, after the government of the colony should be well framed and settled, no orders of the council in England should bind the colony unless ratified by the said General Assembly. The king and company quarrelled, and by a mixture of law and force, the latter were ousted of all their rights, without retribution, after having expended 100,000l. in establishing the colony, without the smallest aid from government. King James suspended their powers by proclamation of July 15, 1624, and Charles I. took the government into his own hands. Both sides had their partisans in the colony: but in truth, the people of the colony in general thought themselves little concerned in the dispute. There being three parties interested in these several charters, what passed between the first and second it was thought could not affect the third. If the king seized on the powers of the company, they only passed into other hands without increase or diminution, while the rights of the people remained as they were: but they did not remain so long. The northern parts of their country were granted away to the Lords Baltimore and Fairfax, the first of these obtaining also the rights of separate jurisdiction and government. And in 1650 the parliament, considering itself as standing in the place of their deposed king, and as having succeeded to all his powers, without as well as within the realm, began to assume a right over the colonies, passing an act for inhibiting their trade with foreign nations. This succession to the exercise of the kingly authority gave the first colour for parliamentary interference with the colonies, and produced that fatal precedent which they continued to follow after they had retired, in other respects, within their proper functions. When this colony, therefore, which still maintained its opposition to Cromwell and the parliament, was induced in 1651 to lay down their arms, they previously secured their most essential rights by a solemn convention.

This convention, entered into with arms in their hands, they supposed had secured the ancient limits of their country; its free trade; its exemption from taxation but by their own assembly, and exclusion of military force from among them. Yet in every of these points was this convention violated by subsequent kings and parliaments, and other infractions of their constitution, equally dangerous, committed. The General Assembly, which was composed of the council of state and burgesses, sitting together and deciding by plurality of voices, was split into two houses, by which the council obtained a separate negative on their laws. Appeals from their supreme court, which had been fixed by law in their General Assembly, were arbitrarily revoked to England, to be there heard before the king and council. Instead of 400 miles on the sea coast, they were reduced, in the space of thirty years, to about 100 miles. Their trade with foreigners was totally suppressed, and, when carried to Great Britain, was there loaded with imposts. It is unnecessary, however, to glean up the several instances of injury, as scattered through American and British history; and the more especially, as, by passing on to the accession of the present king, we shall find specimens of them all, aggravated, multiplied, and crowded within a small compass of time, so as to evince a fixed design of considering the rights of the people, whether natural, conventional, or chartered, as mere nullities. The colonies were taxed internally; their essential interests sacrificed to individuals in Great Britain; their legislatures suspended; charters annulled; trials by juries taken away; their persons subjected to transportation across the Atlantic, and to trial before foreign judicatories; their supplications for redress

thought

thought beneath anſwer; themſelves publiſhed as cowards in the councils of their mother country and courts of Europe; armed troops ſent among them to enforce ſubmiſſion to theſe violences; and actual hoſtilities commenced againſt them. No alternative was preſented but reſiſtance or unconditional ſubmiſſion. Between theſe could be no heſitation. They cloſed in the appeal to arms. They declared themſelves Independent States. They confederated together in one great republic; thus ſecuring to every State the benefit of an union of their whole force. They fought—they conquered—and obtained an honourable and glorious peace.

LIST *of* PRESIDENTS *and* GOVERNORS *of* VIRGINIA, *from its firſt ſettlement to the year* 1624.*

Edward Maria Wingfield,	from	May,	1607,	to	Sept.	1607
John Ratcliffe,		Sept.	1607,	to	July,	1608
Mat. Scrivener, *Vice-Preſident*,		July,	1608,	to	Sept.	1608
John Smith,		Sept.	1608,	to	Sept.	1609
George Percy, *Governor*,		Sept.	1609,	to	May,	1610
Sir Thomas Gates,		May,	1610,	to	June,	1610
Lord Delaware,		June,	1610,	to	March,	1611
George Percy,		March,	1611,	to	May,	1611
Sir Thomas Dale,		May,	1611,	to	Aug.	1611
Sir Thomas Gates,		Auguſt,	1611,	to		1614
Sir Thomas Dale,			1614,	to		1616
George Yeardley,			1616,	to		1617
Samuel Argall,			1617,	to		1619
George Yeardley,			1619,	to	Nov.	1621
Sir Francis Wyat,		Nov.	1621,	to		1624

INDIANA.

INDIANA, ſo called, is a tract of land lying on the Ohio river, in the State of Virginia, ceded to William Trent and twenty-two others, by the Six Nations, and the Shawaneſe, Delaware, and Huron tribes, as a compenſation for the loſſes they had ſuſtained by the depredations of the latter, in the year 1763. This ſeſſion was made in a congreſs of the repreſentatives of the Six Nations at Fort Stanwix, by an indenture, ſigned the 3d of November, 1768, witneſſing, "That for and in conſideration of 85,916l. 10s. 8d. York currency, (the ſame being the amount of goods ſeized and taken by ſaid Indians from ſaid Trent, &c.) they did grant, bargain, ſell, &c. to his Majeſty, his heirs, and ſucceſſors, for the only uſe of the ſaid William Trent, &c. all that tract or parcel of land, beginning at the ſouthierly ſide of the Little Kanhawa Creek, where it empties itſelf into the river Ohio; and running thence ſouth-eaſt to the Laurel Hill; thence along the Laurel Hill until it ſtrikes the River Monongahela; thence down the

* Smith brings down the hiſtory of Virginia no farther than this period. A liſt of the governors ſince has not been received.

ſtream

ſtream of the ſaid river, according to the ſeveral courſes thereof, to the ſouthern boundary line of the province of Pennſylvania; thence weſtwardly along the courſe of the ſaid province boundary line as far as the ſame ſhall extend; thence by the ſame courſe to the River Ohio, and then down the River Ohio to the place of beginning, incluſively.' This indenture was ſigned by ſix Indian chiefs, in preſence of Sir William Johnſon, Governor Franklin of New Jerſey, and the Commiſſioners from Virginia, Pennſylvania, &c. making twelve in the whole.

Since the Indians had an undiſputed title to the above limited territory, either from pre-occupancy or conqueſt, and their right was expreſsly acknowledged by the above deed of ceſſion to the crown, it is very evident that Mr. Trent, in his own right, and as attorney for the traders, has a good, lawful, and ſufficient title to the land granted by the ſaid deed of conveyance.

This matter was laid before Congreſs in the year 1782, and a committee appointed to conſider it, who, in May, reported as follows: "On the whole, your committee are of opinion that the purchaſes of Colonel Croghan and the Indian company were made *bona fide* for a valuable conſideration, according to the then uſage and cuſtoms of purchaſing Indian lands from the Indians, with the knowledge, conſent, and approbation of the Crown of Great Britain, the then government of New York and Virginia, and therefore do recommend that it be

Reſolved, That if the ſaid lands are finally ceded or adjudged to the United States in point of juriſdiction, that Congreſs will confirm to ſuch of the ſaid purchaſers who are, and ſhall be citizens of the United States, or either of them, their reſpective ſhares and proportions of ſaid lands, making a reaſonable deduction for the value of the quit rents reſerved by the Crown of England."

Notwithſtanding this report of the committee, the queſtion could never be brought to a deciſion before Congreſs. The federal conſtitution has, however, made proviſion for the determination of this buſineſs before the ſupreme federal court. But previous to an appeal to this court, the proprietors thought proper, by their agent, Colonel Morgan, (who is alſo a proprietor) to preſent a memorial to the legiſlature of Virginia, ſetting forth their claims, and praying that the buſineſs might be equitably ſettled. This memorial was preſented in November, 1790; and thus the Indiana buſineſs reſts for the preſent.

KENTUCKY.

Situation and Extent.

Miles.			Square Miles.
Length 250 }	between {	80° and 15° W. Longitude. }	50,000
Breadth 200 }		36° 30′ and 39° 30′ N. Latitude. }	

Boundaries.] BOUNDED north-weſt, by the River Ohio; weſt, by Cumberland river; ſouth, by North Carolina; eaſt, by Sandy river, and a line drawn due ſouth from its ſource, till it ſtrikes the northern boundary of North Carolina.

A Map of KENTUCKY

Drawn from Actual Observations.

By JOHN FILSON.

A PLAN of the RAPIDS, in the RIVER OHIO.

From A. to B. is the Carrying Place on the Northern Side of the Ohio. From C. to D. is the safest and shortest Carrying Place. The dotted Line represents the Channel of the River.

A Scale of 1200 Yards

Scale of 10 Miles to an Inch.

10 20 30

EXPLANATION.

- Stations or Forts.
- Salt Springs and Licks.
- Towns.
- Dwelling houses and Mills.
- Wigwams.
- The dotted Lines represent Roads; some Clear'd, others not.

The Stream of the Ohio is in general Moderate, except the Rapids

Gen! Clark's Grant 150.000 Acres

Here is an extensive Tract, call'd Green River Plains which produces no Timber, and but little Water, mostly Fertile, and cover'd with excellent Grass and Herbage

INDIANA TERRITORY

FAYETTE COUNTY

JEFFERSON COUNTY

LINCOLN COUNTY

Pecaway Town

Old Chelicothe

Mingo Nation live here

rapid and stony but no falls

15 Yards wide

Great Miami

Little Miami

returning

going

Wallot Cr.

20 Yards wide

25 Yards wide

Big Bone Cr.

War Road

Buffalo Road

Salt Springs

a Medicinal spring

the large Bones are found here

Bankstick Cr.

Gen! Clarks

Bird's War Road

LICKING RIVER

Wellis's Cr.

Stephens Cr.

Big Indian Cr.

Beaver Cr.

Bracken's Cr.

Fox Cr.

Lawrence Cr.

Limestone Cr.

Cabbin Cr.

Old Shawane Town

Scioto R. very great Land and runs thro excellent Meadow

Point Cr.

321 Miles below Fort Pitt

Tigarts Cr.

Fowler's Lick

Bankstick Cr.

12 Mile Cr.

Natural Meadow

North Fork

Main Licking

Fine Cane Land

Bloody battle fought here

Upper Bluelicks

the Bluelicks a fine salt spring

South Fork

Raven Cr.

Mill Cr.

Riddle's Sta.n

Hingston Fork

Grays Run

Martins Sta.

Spiners Fork

Abundance of Cane

Capt. Johnson

Coopers Run

Huston's Fork

Strouds Fork

Gests Cr.

Fine Cane

Elkhorn

Shoe makers Cr.

Cedar Cr.

Broad Heads Cr.

Severn

The Twins

Eagle Cr.

Emleys

Drakes lick a Medicinal Spring

Patton's Cr.

Little Yeagle

Indian Kentucky

18 Mile Cr.

Clarks Cr.

Silver Cr.

Goose Cr.

Hites

Clarkville

THE RAPIDS

Knob Cr.

Spring Sta.n

Floyds

Low Dutch

Sturgiss

Linns

Barrets Cr.

Sullivans

Louisville

Kirkindols Mill

Cond Cr.

Fish Ponds

Bashares

Floyds Fork

Bullets lick

Town Fork

SALT RIVER

Mill Cr.

Doe Run

Buck Run

Cox's

Bards Town

Chaplains Fork

Parker

Beech Fork

Carpenters Cr.

Boons Run

Pleasant Run

Rolling Fork

Harrods Town

Danville

Harlands

Potts

Irwins

Harbisons

Caldwells Cr.

Clarks

Reeds

Warrens

Col. Shelby

Dividing the Counties

Greenville

Lees Town

N. Fork

Col. Marshals Office

Mc Connels Stack Mill

Bryans

Lexington

Crittenton

Glens Cr.

Town Fork

Gen! Wilkinson

Griers Cr.

Big Benson Cr.

Boons

Kirkindols Mill

Col. Todds

Strouds

Capt. Craigs

Todds

South Fork

Magees

Morrisons

Morgans Mill

Col. Boons

Boons

Clear Cr.

Hickmans Cr.

Marble Cr.

Lessanaine C.

Shawanese

Mc Murtries

Cedar

Mc Apher

Trigs

Grants

Smiths

Grants Mill

Bowmans

Paintlick Cr.

Silver Cr.

Boonsburg

Otter Cr.

Muddy Cr.

Howards upper Cr.

A Mile Cr.

RED LICK RIVER

Lathams Cr.

War Cr.

Bibbss Cr.

N. Fork

Millers Cr.

Cow Cr.

Drowning Cr.

Station Camp Cr.

Sturgeon Cr.

S. Fork

Middle R.

Tyres Mill

Dicks River

Blue lick

Gilberts Cr.

Craigs

Clarks

Logans

Flatlicks

Warrens

Col. Shelby

■ – Towns.
■ – Dwelling houses and Mills.
△ – Wigwams.
The dotted Lines represent Roads; some Clear'd, others not.

Gen.l Clark's Grant
150,000 Acres

Here is an extensive Tract, call'd Green River Plains which produces no Timber, and but little Water, mostly Fertile, and cover'd with excellent Grass and Herbage

Here the Ohio runs a Western course also Green River which falls into it 220 Miles below the Rapids.

Abundance of Iron Ore

Land reserved for the Virginia Troops; extending to the Carolina Line, which runs parrallel with the bottom of this Map. in 36d. N. Latitude.

Near this a Line was run dividing the Counties

Abundance of Cane

Abundance of Cane

A Fine Lead Mine

Path to Cumberland Settlement

The Road from the Old Settlements in Virginia to Kentucky thro' the great Wilderness

Fort of Cumberland Mountain

Published Nov.r 23, 1793. by John Stockdale, Piccadilly.

CIVIL DIVISIONS.] Kentucky was originally divided into two counties, Lincoln and Jefferſon. It has ſince been ſubdivided into nine, which follow:

Counties.	No. Inhab.	Chief Towns.	No. Inhab.
Jefferſon,	4,565	LOUISVILLE,	200
Fayette,	17,576	LEXINGTON,	834
Bourbon,	7,837		
Mercer,	6,941	Danville,	150
Nelſon,	11,099	Beardſtown,	216
Madiſon,	5,772		
Lincoln,	6,548		
Woodford,	9,210		
Maſon,	2,267	Waſhington,	462
Total	73,677	of whom 12,430 are ſlaves.	

As moſt of theſe counties are very large, it is probable that ſubdiviſions will continue to be made, as population increaſes.

RIVERS.] The River Ohio waſhes the north-weſtern ſide of Kentucky, in its whole extent. Its principal branches, which water this fertile tract of country, are Sandy, Licking, Kentucky, Salt, Green, and Cumberland rivers. Theſe again branch in various directions into rivulets of different magnitudes, fertilizing the country in all its parts. At the bottoms of theſe watercourſes the lime-ſtone rock, which is common to this country, appears of a greyiſh colour; and where it lies expoſed to the air, in its natural ſtate, it looks like brown free-ſtone. On the banks of theſe rivers and rivulets, this ſtone has the appearance of fine marble, being of the ſame texture, and is found in the greateſt plenty.

Sandy, Licking, and Kentucky rivers riſe near each other, in the Cumberland mountains. Of theſe, Sandy river only breaks through the mountain. This river conſtitutes a part of the eaſtern boundary of Kentucky.

Licking river runs in a north-weſt direction upwards of 100 miles, and is about 100 yards broad at its mouth.

Kentucky is a very crooked river, and after running a courſe of more than 200 miles, empties into the Ohio by a mouth 150 yards broad.

Salt river riſes at four different places near each other. The windings of this river are curious. The four branches, after a circuitous courſe round a fine tract of land, unite; and after running about fifteen miles, empty into the Ohio, twenty miles below the falls. Its general courſe is weſtward; its length about ninety miles; and at its mouth is eighty yards wide.

Green river purſues a weſtern courſe upwards of 150 miles, and by a mouth eighty yards wide, falls into the Ohio, 120 miles below the rapids.

Cumberland river interlocks with the northern branch of Kentucky, and rolling round the other arms of Kentucky, among the mountains in a ſouthern courſe, 100 miles; then in a ſouth-weſtern courſe for above 200 more; then in a ſouthern and ſouth-weſtern courſe for about 250 more, finds the Ohio, 413 miles below the falls. At Naſhville, this river is 200 yards broad, and at its mouth 300. The river in about half its courſe, paſſes through the territory ſouth of the Ohio.

Theſe rivers are navigable for boats almoſt to their ſources, without rapids, for the greateſt part of the year. Frequent rains in the latter end of the autumn produce floods in the Ohio, and it is an uncommon ſeaſon when one of thoſe floods does not happen

happen before Chriſtmas. If there is much froſty weather in the upper parts of the country, its waters generally remain low until they begin to thaw. But if the river is not frozen over, which is not very common, there is always water ſufficient for boats of any ſize, from November until May; when the waters generally begin to ſubſide; and by the middle of June, in moſt ſeaſons, they are too low for boats above forty tons, and theſe muſt be flat-bottomed. The froſt ſeldom continues ſo long as the middle of February, and immediately upon its breaking the river is flooded; this flood may in a degree ſubſide, but for no length of time; and it is from that period until May, that the boats generally come down the river. The diſtance of deſcending is in proportion to the height of the water; but the average diſtance is about eighty miles in twenty-four hours, and from ſixty to one hundred are the extremes; ſo that the mean time of going in a flat-bottomed boat from Pittſburgh to the rapids, is between eight and nine days, and about twenty days more to New Orleans; which will make a paſſage from Pittſburgh to that place nearly a month.

The little rivulets which chequer the country, begin to leſſen in June, and quite diſappear in the months of Auguſt, September, and October. The autumnal rains, however, in November repleniſh them again. The method of getting a ſupply of water in the dry ſeaſon is by ſinking wells, which are eaſily dug, and afford excellent water. The want of water in autumn is the great complaint. Mills, that may be ſupplied with water eight months in a year, may be erected in a thouſand different places. Wind-mills and horſe-mills may ſupply the other four months.

The banks of the rivers are generally high and compoſed of lime-ſtone. After heavy rains, the water in the rivers riſes from 10 to 30 feet.

SPRINGS.] There are five noted ſalt ſprings or licks in this country; viz. the higher and lower Blue Springs, on Licking river, from ſome of which, it is ſaid, iſſue ſtreams of briniſh water—the Big Bone lick, Drennon's licks, and Bullet's lick, at Saltſburgh. The laſt of theſe licks, though in low order, has ſupplied this country and Cumberland with ſalt, at twenty ſhillings the buſhel, Virginia currency; and ſome is exported to the Illinois country. The method of procuring water from theſe licks is by ſinking wells from 30 to 40 feet deep. The water drawn from theſe wells is more ſtrongly impregnated with ſalt than the water from the ſea. A ſtrait road, 40 feet wide, has been cut from Saltſburgh to Louiſville, 24 miles.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] This whole country, as far as has yet been diſcovered, lies upon a bed of lime-ſtone, which in general is about ſix feet below the ſurface, except in the vallies, where the ſoil is much thinner. A tract of about twenty miles, along the banks of the Ohio, is hilly, broken land, interſperſed with many fertile ſpots. The reſt of the country is agreeably uneven, gently aſcending and deſcending at no great diſtances. The angles of aſcent are from eight to twenty-four degrees, and ſometimes more. The vallies in common are very narrow, and the ſoil in them is very thin, and of an inferior quality; and that along the aſcending ground is frequently not much better; for where you ſee a tree blown up, you find the roots clinging to the upper parts of the rock. The ſoil, on theſe agreeable aſcents, (for they cannot be called hills) is ſufficiently deep, as is evident from the ſize of the trees. The ſoil is either black, or tinged with a lighter or deeper vermilion, or is of the colour of dark aſhes. In many places there are appearances of potter's clay, and coal in abundance. The country promiſes to be well ſupplied with wholeſome, well-taſted water. In Nelſon county, north-weſt of Rolling fork, a branch of Salt river, is a tract of about forty miles ſquare, moſtly barren, interſperſed with plains and ſtrips of good land, which are advantageous ſituations for raiſing cattle, as the neighbouring barrens,

as

as they are improperly ſtyled, are covered with graſs, and afford good paſturage. The lands eaſt of Nolin Creek, a branch of Green river, are in general of an inferior quality; but the banks of Green river afford many deſirable ſituations.

Towards the head waters of Kentucky river, which interlock with the waters of Cumberland and Sandy rivers, and the whole country eaſtward and ſouthward as far as the Holſtein river, is broken, mountainous, and almoſt impenetrable; and from the deſcription given by hunters, it is much doubted whether it will ever be practicable to make a paſſable road from Kentucky acroſs to Wincheſter, in Virginia, on the eaſt ſide of the mountains, which, on a ſtraight line, is not perhaps more than four hundred miles, and the way now travelled is ſix hundred. No country will admit of being thicker ſettled with farmers, who confine themſelves to agriculture, than this.

Elkhorn river, a branch of the Kentucky, from the ſouth-eaſt, waters a country fine beyond deſcription. Indeed, the country eaſt and ſouth of this, including the head waters of Licking river, Hickman's and Jeſſamine Creeks, and the remarkable bend in Kentucky river, may be called an extenſive garden. The ſoil is deep and black, and the natural growth, large walnuts, honey and black locuſt, poplar, elm, oak, hickory, ſugar tree, &c. Grape vines run to the tops of the trees; and the ſurface of the ground is covered with clover, blue graſs, and wild rye. On this fertile tract, and the Licking river, and the head waters of Salt river, are the bulk of the ſettlements in this country. The ſoil within a mile or two of Kentucky river is generally of the third and fourth rates; and as you advance towards the Ohio, the land is poor and hilly.

Dick's river runs through a great body of firſt rate land, abounding with cane, and affords many excellent mill ſeats. Salt river has good lands on its head waters, except that they are low and unhealthy, but for twenty-five miles before it empties into the Ohio, the land on each ſide is level and poor, and abounds with ponds.

Cumberland river, ſo much of it as paſſes through Kentucky, traverſes, ſome parts excepted, a hilly, poor country.

Green river overflows its banks a conſiderable way up, at the ſeaſon when the Ohio ſwells, which is in April. This ſwell in Green river occaſions ſeveral of its branches to overflow, and cover the low grounds with water, leaves and vegetable ſubſtances, which, in ſummer, become noxious and unhealthy. Its banks are fine and fertile. There is a great body of good land near the falls and rapids in the Ohio, called Bare Graſs; but the climate is rendered unhealthy by ponds of ſtagnant water, which may be eaſily drained.

This country in general is well timbered. Of the natural growth which is peculiar to this country, we may reckon the ſugar, the coffee, the papaw, and the cucumber tree. The two laſt are ſoft wood, and bear a fruit of the ſhape and ſize of a cucumber. The coffee tree reſembles the black oak, and bears a pod, which incloſes a ſeed, of which a drink is made not unlike coffee. Beſides theſe, there is the honey locuſt, black mulberry, wild cherry, of a large ſize. The buck-eye, an exceedingly ſoft wood, is the horſe cheſnut of Europe. The magnolia bears a beautiful bloſſom, of a rich and exquiſite fragrance. Such is the variety and beauty of the flowering ſhrubs and plants which grow ſpontaneouſly in this country, that in the proper ſeaſon the wilderneſs appears in bloſſom.

The accounts of the fertility of the ſoil in this country have, in ſome inſtances, exceeded belief; and probably have been exaggerated. That ſome parts of Kentucky, particularly the high grounds, are remarkably good, all accounts agree. The lands of the firſt rate are too rich for wheat, and will produce 50 or 60, and in ſome inſtances,

it is affirmed, 100 buſhels of good corn, an acre. In common, the land will produce thirty buſhels of wheat or rye an acre. Barley, oats, cotton, flax, hemp, and vegetables of all kinds, common in this climate, yield abundantly. The old Virginia planters ſay, that if the climate does not prove too moiſt, few ſoils known will yield more or better tobacco. Experience has proved, that the climate is not too moiſt. Great quantities of this article have been exported to France and Spain, through New Orleans; and it is a well-known fact, that Philadelphia is a profitable market for the Kentucky planter, notwithſtanding all the inconveniencies and expenſes of re-ſhipment at New Orleans, under a Spaniſh government. What advantages then may not this country expect from a free navigation of the Miſſiſſippi, unreſtrained by Spaniſh policy!

In the weſtern territory is found all the variety of ſoil and climate neceſſary to the culture of every kind of grain, fibrous plants, cotton, fruits, vegetables, and all ſorts of proviſions. The upper ſettlements on the Ohio produce chiefly wheat, oats, barley, rye, Indian corn or maize, hemp, and flax. The fruits are, apples, pears, cherries, peaches, plums, ſtrawberries, raſpberries, currants, gooſeberries, and grapes; of culinary plants and vegetables, there are turnips, potatoes, carrots, parſnips, cymbiline or ſquaſh, cucumbers, peas, beans, aſparagus, cabbages, brocoli, celery, and ſallads; beſides which, there are melons and herbs of every ſort. The proviſions conſiſt of beef, pork, mutton, veal, and a variety of poultry, ſuch as ducks, Muſcovy ducks, turkies, geeſe, dunghill fowls, and pigeons. Some conſiderable quantity of ſpirits diſtilled from rye, and likewiſe cyder, are ſent down the river to a market, in thoſe infant ſettlements where the inhabitants have not had time to bring orchards to any perfection, or have not a ſuperfluity of grain to diſtil into ſpirits. The beef, pork, and flour are diſpoſed of in the ſame way. The flax and hemp are packed on horſes and ſent acroſs the mountain to the inland towns of Pennſylvania and Maryland.

In the rivers are plenty of buffalo, pike, and catfiſh, of uncommon ſize; ſalmon, mullet, rock, perch, garfiſh, eel, ſuckers, ſunfiſh, &c. Shad have not been caught in the weſtern waters.

Swamps are rare in Kentucky; and of courſe the reptiles which they produce, ſuch as ſnakes, frogs, &c. are not numerous. The honey-bee may be called a domeſtic inſect, as it is ſaid not to be found but in civiliſed countries. This is confirmed by a ſaying, which is common among the Indians, when they ſee a ſwarm of bees in the woods—"Well, brothers, it is time for us to decamp, for the white people are coming." Neverthelefs bees, of late years, have abounded, to their amazement, even 200 miles N. and N. W. of the Ohio.

The quadrupeds, except the buffalo, are the ſame as in Virginia and the Carolinas.

CLIMATE.] Healthy and delightful, ſome few places in the neighbourhood of ponds and low grounds excepted. The inhabitants do not experience the extremes of heat and cold. Snow ſeldom falls deep or lies long. The winter, which begins about Chriſtmas, is never longer than three months, and is commonly but two, and is ſo mild that cattle can ſubſiſt without fodder.

CHIEF TOWNS.] LEXINGTON, which ſtands on the head waters of Elkhorn river, is reckoned the capital of Kentucky. Here the courts are held, and buſineſs regularly conducted. In 1786 it contained about 100 houſes, and ſeveral ſtores, with a good aſſortment of dry goods. It has greatly increaſed ſince, and contains about 900 inhabitants.

WASHINGTON, the ſhire town of Maſon county, is the ſecond town in this State, containing about 500 inhabitants.

LEESTOWN is weſt of Lexington, on the eaſtern bank of Kentucky river; it is regularly laid out, and is flouriſhing. The banks of Kentucky river are remarkably high, in ſome places 300 and 400 feet, compoſed generally of ſtupendous perpendicular rock; the conſequence is, there are few croſſing places; the beſt is at Leeſtown, which is a circumſtance that muſt contribute much to its increaſe.

LOUISVILLE is at the rapids of the Ohio, in a fertile country, and promiſes to be a place of great trade; it has been made a port of entry. Its unhealthineſs, owing to ſtagnated waters at the back of the town, has conſiderably retarded its growth. Beſides theſe, there is Beardſtown, in Nelſon county; and Harrodſburg, in Mercer county; both on the head waters of Salt river. Danville, Boonſborough, and Granville, are alſo increaſing towns.

POPULATION AND CHARACTER.] The population of this State in 1790, is given in the preceding table. In 1783, in the county of Lincoln* only, there were on the militia rolls 3570 men, chiefly emigrants from the lower parts of Virginia. In 1784, the number of inhabitants were reckoned at upwards of 30,000. It is aſſerted, that at leaſt 20,000 migrated here in the year 1787. Theſe people, collected from different States, of different manners, cuſtoms, religions, and political ſentiments, have not been long enough together to form an uniform national character. Among the ſettlers there are gentlemen of abilities, and many genteel families, from ſeveral of the States, who give dignity and reſpectability to the ſettlement. They are, in general, more regular than people who generally ſettle new countries.

RELIGION.] The Baptiſts are the moſt numerous religious ſect in Kentucky, There are ſeveral large congregations of Preſbyterians, and ſome few of other denominations.

CONSTITUTION.] By the conſtitution of this State, formed and adopted in 1792, the powers of government are divided into three diſtinct departments; legiſlative, executive, and judiciary. The legiſlative power is veſted in a General Aſſemby, conſiſting of a ſenate and houſe of repreſentatives; the ſupreme executive, in a governor; the judiciary, in the ſupreme court of appeals, and ſuch inferior courts as the legiſlature may eſtabliſh. The repreſentatives are choſen annually by the people; the ſenators and governor are choſen for four years, by electors appointed for that purpoſe; the judges are appointed, during good behaviour, by the governor, with advice of the ſenate. An enumeration of the free male inhabitants, above twenty-one years old, is to be made once in four years. After each enumeration, the number of ſenators and repreſentatives is to be fixed by the legiſlature, and apportioned among the ſeveral counties according to the number of inhabitants. There can never be fewer than 40, nor more than 100 repreſentatives. The ſenate at firſt conſiſted of eleven members; and for the addition of every four repreſentatives, one ſenator is to be added. The repreſentatives muſt be twenty-four years old; the ſenators twenty-ſeven; the governor thirty, and all of them muſt have been inhabitants of the State two years. The governor can hold no other office. The members of the General Aſſembly none but thoſe of attorney at law, juſtice of the peace, coroner, and in the militia. The judges, and all other officers, muſt be inhabitants of the counties for which they are appointed. The governor, members of the General Aſſembly, and judges, receive ſtated ſalaries out of the public treaſury, from which no money can be drawn, but in conſequence of appropriation by law. All officers take an oath of fidelity to diſcharge the duties of their offices, and are liable to impeachment for miſconduct. Elective

* The county, it is to be remembered, has ſince been divided and ſubdivided.

officers muſt ſwear that they have not uſed bribery in obtaining their elections. All free male citizens, twenty-one years old, having reſided in the State two years, or in the county where they offer to vote, one year, have a right to vote for repreſentatives, and for electors of ſenators and governor, and are privileged from arreſt, in civil actions, while attending that buſineſs. The General Aſſemby meets on the firſt Monday in November in each year, unleſs ſooner convened by the governor. Each houſe chooſes its ſpeaker and other officers, judges of the qualification of its members, and determines the rules of its proceedings, of which a journal is kept and publiſhed weekly, unleſs ſecrecy be requiſite. The doors of both houſes are kept open. The members of the legiſlature, while attending the public buſineſs, are privileged from arreſts in civil actions, and may not be queſtioned elſewhere for any thing ſaid in public debate. Impeachments are made by the lower houſe, and tried by the upper. All revenue bills originate in the houſe of repreſentatives, and are amendable by the ſenate, like other bills. Each bill paſſed by both houſes is preſented to the governor, who muſt ſign it if he approve it; if not, he muſt return it within ten days to the houſe in which it originated; if it be not returned, or if, when returned, it be re-paſſed by two thirds of both houſes, it is a law without his ſignature. The governor has power to appoint moſt of the executive offices of the State; to remit fines and forfeitures, and grant reprieves and pardons, except in caſes of impeachment; to require information from executive officers; to convene the General Aſſembly on extraordinary occaſions, and adjourn them in caſe they cannot agree on the time themſelves. He muſt inform the legiſlature of the ſtate of the commonwealth; recommend to them ſuch meaſures as he ſhall judge expedient; and ſee that the laws are faithfully executed. The ſpeaker of the ſenate exerciſes the office of governor in caſe of vacancy. The legiſlature has power to forbid the farther importation of ſlaves, but not to emancipate thoſe already in the State without the conſent of the owner, or paying an equivalent. Treaſon againſt the commonwealth conſiſts only in levying war againſt it, or in adhering to its enemies, giving them aid and comfort.

The declaration of rights aſſerts the civil equality of all; their right to alter the government at any time; liberty of conſcience; freedom of elections, and of the preſs; trial by jury; the ſubordination of the military to the civil power; the rights of criminals to be heard in their own defence; the right of the people to petition for the redreſs of grievances, to bear arms, and to emigrate from the State. It prohibits unreaſonable ſearches and ſeizures; exceſſive bail; confinement of debtors, unleſs there be preſumption of fraud; ſuſpenſion of habeas corpus writ, unleſs in rebellion or invaſion; ex poſt facto laws; attainder by the legiſlature; ſtanding armies; titles of nobility and hereditary diſtinction.

Literature and Improvements.] The legiſlature of Virginia, while Kentucky belonged to that State, made proviſion for a college in it, and endowed it with very conſiderable landed funds. The Rev. John Todd gave a very handſome library for its uſe. Schools are eſtabliſhed in the ſeveral towns, and in general regularly and handſomely ſupported. They have a printing-office, and publiſh a Weekly Gazette. They have erected a paper mill, an oil mill, fulling mills, ſaw mills, and a great number of valuable griſt mills. Their ſalt works are more than ſufficient to ſupply all their inhabitants, at a low price. They make conſiderable quantities of ſugar from the ſugar trees. Labourers, particularly tradeſmen, are exceedingly wanted here.

Curiosities.] The banks, or rather precipices, of Kentucky and Dick's river, are to be reckoned among the natural curioſities of this country. Here the aſtoniſhed eye beholds 300 or 400 feet of ſolid perpendicular rock, in ſome parts, of the lime-ſtone kind,

kind, and in others of fine white marble, curiouſly chequered with ſtrata of aſtoniſhing regularity. Theſe rivers have the appearance of deep artificial canals. Their high rocky banks are covered with red cedar groves.

Caves have been diſcovered in this country of ſeveral miles in length, under a fine lime-ſtone rock, ſupported by curious arches and pillars. Springs that emit ſulphureous matter have been found in ſeveral parts of the country. One is near a ſalt ſpring in the neighbourhood of Boonſborough. There are three ſprings or ponds of bitumen near Green river, which do not form a ſtream, but empty themſelves into a common reſervoir, and when uſed in lamps, anſwer all the purpoſes of the beſt oil. Copperas and alum are among the minerals of Kentucky. Near Lexington are found curious ſepulchres full of human ſkeletons. It has been aſſerted, that a man, in or near Lexington, having dug five or ſix feet below the ſurface of the ground, came to a large flat ſtone, under which was a well of common depth, regularly and artificially ſtoned.

History.] Though the war which took place between England and France in the year 1755, terminated ſo glorioufly for Great Britain, and ſecurely for the then colonies, ſtill we remained ignorant of the whole of the fine country lying between the high hills, which riſe from Great Sandy river, approximate the Allegany Mountain, and extending down the Ohio to its confluence with the Miſſiſſippi, and back to thoſe ridges of mountains which traverſe America in a S. W. by W. direction, until they are loſt in the flat lands of Weſt Florida. However, certain men, called Long Hunters, from Virginia and North Carolina, by penetrating theſe mountains, (which ramify into a country 200 miles over from E. to W. called the wilderneſs,) were faſcinated with the beauty and luxuriance of the country on the weſtern ſide.

A grant had been ſold by the Six Nations of Indians to ſome Britiſh commiſſioners at Fort Stanwix in 1768, which comprehended this country, and which afforded the Americans a pretext for a right to ſettle it; but thoſe Indian natives who were not concerned in the grant, became diſſatisfied with the proſpect of a ſettlement which might become ſo dangerous a thorn in their ſide, and committed ſome maſſacres upon the firſt explorers of the country. However, after the expedition of Lord Dunmore in 1774, and the battle at the mouth of the Great Kanhaway, between the army of Colonel Lewis and the confederated tribes of Indians, they were in ſome meaſure quiet. The Aſſembly of Virginia began now to encourage the peopling that diſtrict of country called Kentucky, from the name of a river which runs nearly through the middle of it. This encouragement conſiſted in offering 400 acres of land to every perſon who engaged to build a cabin, clear a piece of land, and produce a crop of Indian corn. This was called a ſettlement right. Some hundreds of theſe ſettlements were made; but, in the mean time, Mr. Richard Henderſon, of North Carolina, a man of no inconſiderable abilities, and more enterpriſe, had obtained a grant from the Cherokee tribe of Indians for this ſame tract of country; and though it was contrary to the laws of the land for any private citizen to make purchaſes of the Indians, ſtill Mr. Henderſon perſevered in his intention of eſtabliſhing a colony of his own. He actually took poſſeſſion of the country, with many of his followers, where he remained pretty quiet, making very little improvement, Virginia being at that time entirely occupied with the war, which had commenced between Great Britain and the confederated States. Moſt of the young men from the back ſettlements of Virginia and Pennſylvania, who would have migrated to this country, having engaged in the war, formed that body of men, called Rifle-men; which not only checked the growth of the ſettlement, but ſo dried up the ſources of emigration, that it was near being annihilated by the fury of the ſavages.

The

The legality of Mr. Henderſon's claim was inveſtigated by the State of Virginia in 1781; and though there could be no ſort of equity in it, he having acted in contempt of the State, the legiſlature, to avoid feuds or diſturbances, (for Henderſon ſtill had influence) agreed, as an indemnification for the expenſe and trouble he had been at, that he ſhould be allowed a tract of country 12 miles ſquare, lying in the forks of the Ohio and Green rivers: a tract of his own chuſing.

Virginia gave farther rewards and encouragements at this time to the firſt ſettlers, for the perils they had undergone in the eſtabliſhment of their ſettlement, of a tract of 1000 acres, called a pre-emption right, to be laid off adjoining to the ſettlement of 400 acres, the grantee only paying office-fees for the ſame. After this period, (i. e. 1781) a land office was opened by the State, granting warrants for any quantity of unlocated land, upon condition of certain ſums of the depreciated continental currency being paid into the treaſure, at ſo much for 100 acres. The great plenty and little value of this money ſoon cauſed the whole country to be located, which was one of the material cauſes of its rapid population.

It was neceſſary, in the management of this buſineſs, that care ſhould be taken to prevent that perplexity and litigation, which the vague manner in which that buſineſs was executed in many inſtances would neceſſarily produce. For this purpoſe, three principal ſurveyors were appointed, who were to lay or cauſe to be laid off, by their deputies, the different locations within the limits of their diſtricts: this being done, and recorded in the office, the original ſurvey was ſent to the deputy regiſter's office, there to be recorded; from which it was ſent to the principal regiſter's office at Richmond, the ſeat of government, there to remain twelve months, in order that any perſon having a claim, by virtue of a prior location, might have an opportunity to enter a caveat, and prevent a ſurreptitious grant from iſſuing. Commiſſioners were alſo ſent to adjuſt the claims of ſettlement and pre-emption rights; by which means order was preſerved, and the government of a diſtrict of country, detached, and ſeparated at that time more than 200 miles from any other ſettled country.

The years 1783 and 1784 brought out vaſt numbers of emigrants from all parts of America, particularly the latter year, when it was ſuppoſed that in Kentucky alone, not leſs than 12,000 ſouls became ſettlers; ſeveral Europeans from France, England, and Ireland, were among the number. In 1783, 1784, and 1785, great part of the country was ſurveyed and patented, and the people in the interior ſettlements purſued their buſineſs in as much quiet and ſafety as they could have done in any part of Europe. Court-houſes were built in the different counties, and roads were opened for carriages, which ſeven years before had not been ſeen in the country. The only roads hitherto were for ſingle horſes.

In 1785, the diſtrict had grown ſo conſiderable from the great number of emigrants which had arrived, and that reſpectability which it had acquired produced a diſpoſition in the inhabitants to become an independent State, and to be admitted as another link in the great federal chain. A convention was immediately formed by ſending deputies from the different counties, who met at Danville, for the purpoſe of taking the matter into conſideration; when it was determined, after ſome debating, to petition Virginia for that purpoſe. However, this buſineſs was procraſtinated; for finding, though they might ſeparate whenever they choſe, yet that it was optional with the legiſlature of Virginia to recommend them to be taken into the federal government (which they were not likely to do, and which it was certain could not be done without,) they were content to remain as they were for that time.

The

The federal government in the courſe of the year 1785, undertook to lay off the country weſt of the Ohio, in ſuch manner as would anſwer the purpoſe of ſelling the land, and ſetting the country; but, owing to a variety of cauſes, their progreſs was very ſlow. However, ſome land was ſurveyed in 1786 and 1787, and in the latter year a ſettlement was formed upon the Muſkingum, which may be looked upon as the commencement of the American ſettlements upon the weſtern ſide of the Ohio. In 1788 and 1789, ſome farther ſurveying was done; but little ſince has been tranſacted in thoſe parts, except wars between the Indians and the ſettlers.

NORTH CAROLINA.

Situation and Extent.

Miles.			Sq. Miles.
Length 300	between	1° and 6° 30′ W. Long.	34,000
Breadth 120		33° 50′ and 36° 30′ N. Lat.	

Boundaries.] Bounded north, by Virginia; eaſt, by the Atlantic ocean; ſouth, by South Carolina and Georgia; weſt, by a chain of mountains a few miles to the weſtward of the Great Appalachian Mountain. This chain of mountains, taking the whole for a part, has occaſionally been called the Great Iron Mountain. All that vaſt country which lies on the weſt of the Iron Mountain, was ſurrendered to the United States by the State of North Carolina in the year 1789. It has ſince been erected into a ſeparate government, commonly called the Territory South of Ohio, or the Tenneſſee government.*

Civil Divisions.] This State is divided into eight diſtricts, which are ſubdivided into 54 counties, as follows:

* The charter limits of North Carolina are a line, beginning on the ſea ſide, at a cedar ſtake, at or near the mouth of a little river, (being the ſouthern extremity of Brunſwic county) and running thence a north-weſt courſe through the boundary-houſe, in lat. 33° 56′ to lat. 35°, and on that parallel weſt as far as is mentioned in the charter of K. Charles II. to the original proprietors of Carolina, viz. to the South Sea. Their northern line begins on the ſea-coaſt in lat. 36° 30′, and runs due weſt to the termination of the ſouthern line. This line ſtrikes the Miſſiſſippi 15 miles below the mouth of the Ohio. Theſe limits were aſcertained and confirmed agreeably to an order of George II. in council, in the year ——. Great Britain, by the treaty of 1763, which was made with France and Spain, ſurrendered her claim to all the territory weſtward of the Miſſiſſippi; and thoſe nations, by the ſame treaty, granted to Great Britain the free navigation of the Miſſiſſippi. By the treaty of 1783, between Spain and Great Britain, his Catholic Majeſty expreſsly confirms the former treaty of 1763, except ſuch parts as are there excepted; conſequently he confirms to Great Britain the navigation of the Miſſiſſippi; and Great Britain, on her part, yields to the United States her entire right to the navigation of the Miſſiſſippi. But ſince Spain now claims the excluſive navigation of the Miſſiſſippi, which ſhe had formerly ſurrendered, it is very probable that the United States, to whom North Carolina has ceded her weſtern territory, may claim the lands on the weſt ſide of the Miſſiſſippi, which were within the original charter bounds of that State.

TABLE

TABLE.

These 3 districts are on the sea-coast, extending from Virginia line southward to S. Carolina.

Counties.	Districts.
EDENTON. 9 counties, 53,770 inhabitants. Chief town, Edenton.	Chowan, Currituck, Camden, Pasquotank, Perquimins, Gates, Hertford, Bertie, Tyrrel
WILMINGTON. 5 counties, 26,035 inhabitants. Chief town, Wilmington.	N. Hanover, Brunswick, Duplin, Bladen, Onslow
NEWBERN. 9 counties, 55,540 inhabitants. Chief town, Newbern.	Craven, Beaufort, Carteret, Johnston, Pitt, Dobbs, Wayne, Hyde, Jones

These 5 districts, beginning on the Virginia line, cover the whole State west of the 3 maritime districts before mentioned; and the greater part of them extend quite across the State from N. to S.

Counties.	Districts.
HALIFAX. 7 counties, 64,630 inhabitants. Chief town, Halifax	Halifax, Northampton, Martin, Edgecomb, Warren, Franklin, Nash
HILLSBOROUGH. 6 counties, 59,983 inhabitants. Chief town, Hillsborough	Orange, Chatham, Granville, Caswell, Wake, Randolf
SALISBURY. 8 counties, 66,480 inhabitants. Chief town, Salisbury.	Rowan, Mecklenburgh, Rockingham, Iredell, Surry, Montgomery, Stokes, Guilford
MORGAN. 4 counties, 33,293 inhabitants.	Burke, Ruthford, Lincoln, Wilkes
FAYETTE. 6 counties, 34,020 inhabitants. Chief town, Fayetteville.	Cumberland, Moore, Richmond, Robison, Sampson, Anson.

RIVERS.] Chowan river is formed by the confluence of three rivers, viz. the Meherrin, Nottaway, and Black rivers; all of which rise in Virginia. It falls into the north-west corner of Albemarle Sound, and is three miles wide at its mouth, but narrows fast as you ascend it.

Roanoke is a long rapid river, formed by two principal branches, Staunton river, which rises in Virginia, and Dan river, which rises in North Carolina. The low lands on this river are subject to inundations. It is navigable only for shallops, nor for these, but about 60 or 70 miles, on account of falls, which in a great measure obstruct the water communication with the back country. It empties, by several mouths, into the south-west end of Albemarle Sound. The planters, on the banks of this river, are supposed to be the wealthiest in North Carolina. One of them, it is said, raises about 3000 barrels of corn, and 4000 bushels of peas, annually.

Cushai is a small river, which empties into Albemarle Sound between Chowan and the Roanoke.

Pamlico

Pamlico or Tar river opens into Pamlico ſound. Its courſe is from north-weſt to ſouth-eaſt. It is navigable for veſſels drawing nine feet water to the town of Waſhington, about forty miles from its mouth; and for ſcows or flats, carrying thirty or forty hogſheads, fifty miles further, to the town of Tarborough. Beyond this place the river is inconſiderable and is not navigable.

Neus river empties into Pamlico ſound below Newbern. It is navigable for ſea veſſels about twelve miles above the town of Newbern; for ſcows fifty miles, and for ſmall boats two hundred miles.

Trent river, from the ſouth-weſt, falls into the Neus at Newbern. It is navigable for ſea veſſels about twelve miles above the town, and for boats thirty.

There are ſeveral other rivers of leſs note, among which are the Paſquotank, Perquimins, Little river, Alligator, &c. which diſcharge themſelves into Albemarle ſound. All the rivers in North Carolina, and, it may be added, in South Carolina, Georgia, and the Floridas, which empty into the Atlantic ocean, are navigable by any veſſel that can paſs the bar at their mouth. While the watercourſes continue wide enough for veſſels to turn round, there is generally a ſufficient depth of water for them to proceed.

Cape Fear, more properly Clarendon river, opens into the ſea at Cape Fear, in about latitude 33° 45′. As you aſcend it, you paſs Brunſwick on the left, and Wilmington on the right. The river then divides into north-eaſt and north-weſt branches, as they are called. It is navigable for large veſſels to Wilmington, and for boats to Fayetteville, near ninety miles further. This river affords the beſt navigation in North Carolina. Yadkin river riſes in this State, and running ſouth-eaſtwardly, croſſes into South Carolina, where it takes the name of Pedee, and paſſes to ſea below Georgetown.

This State would be much more valuable, were it not that the rivers are barred at their mouths, and the coaſt furniſhes no good harbours. Theſe circumſtances will prevent the State from building large ſhips, for which they have an abundance of excellent timber. Several cauſes have been aſſigned for all the harbours and rivers being barred, ſouth of the Cheſapeak. Some ſuppoſe the bars are formed by the current of the long rivers throwing up the ſands, where their rapidity terminates; others ſay that a bank is thrown up by the Gulf Stream, which runs near theſe ſhores.

The banks of the rivers in this, and the other neighbouring States, often overflow after great rains; which does much damage to the plantations. A gentleman on the ſpot aſſerts, that he has ſeen the water thirty feet below the banks of the river, juſt after it had been ten feet above them. This is owing to the narrowneſs of the mouths of the rivers, which do not afford a ſufficient channel for the waters, accumulating every mile, to diſcharge themſelves into the ocean.

Sounds, Capes, Inlets, &c.] Pamlico ſound is a kind of lake or inland ſea, from ten to twenty miles broad, and nearly one hundred miles in length. It is ſeparated from the ſea, in its whole length, by a beach of ſand hardly a mile wide, generally covered with ſmall trees or buſhes. Through this bank are ſeveral ſmall inlets, by which boats may paſs. But Ocrecok inlet is the only one that will admit veſſels of burden into the diſtricts of Edenton and Newbern. This inlet is in latitude 35° 10′; and opens into Pamlico ſound between Ocrecok iſland and Core bank; the land on the north is called Ocrecok; and on the ſouth Portſmouth. A bar of hard ſand croſſes this inlet, on which, at low tide, there are fourteen feet water. Six miles within this bar is a hard ſand ſhoal, called the Swaſh, lying acroſs the channel. On each ſide

of the channel are dangerous ſhoals, ſometimes dry. There is from eight to nine feet water at full tide, according to the winds, on the Swaſh. Common tides riſe eighteen inches on the bar, and ten on the Swaſh. Between the bar and the Swaſh is good anchoring ground, called the Upper and Lower anchorages. Ships drawing ten feet water do not come farther than the firſt Anchorage, till lightened. Few mariners, though acquainted with the inlets, chooſe to bring in their own veſſels, as the bar often ſhifts during their abſence on a voyage. North of Pamlico ſound, and communicating with it, is Albemarle ſound, ſixty miles in length, and from eight to twelve in breadth.

Core ſound lies ſouth of Pamlico, and communicates with it. Theſe ſounds are ſo large when compared with their inlets from the ſea, that no tide can be perceived in any of the rivers which empty into them; nor is the water ſalt even in the mouths of theſe rivers.

Cape Hatteras is in latitude 35° 15′. At the time of Sir Walter Raleigh's approaching the American ſhores, the ſhoals in the vicinity of Hatteras were found to be extremely dangerous, and no veſſels, in that latitude, ventured within ſeven leagues of the land. From a ſurvey of the ancient drafts of this part of the coaſt, there can be no doubt but the fears of former navigators were not without foundation, as theſe ſhoals are laid down very large in extent, and in many places covered with not more than five or ſix feet water, at a great diſtance from the land.

The conſtant experience of the coaſting trade of the United States demonſtrates, either that the ancient drafts were purpoſely falſified in order to deter ſeamen from venturing too near a coaſt, with which they had as yet a very ſlender acquaintance, or (which is the moſt probable) that by the ſtrong currents hereabouts, which are only counter currents of the Gulph Stream, the ſands, which were originally heaped up in this part of the ocean by ſome ancient convulſion of nature, have been gradually wearing away, and diminiſhing to what we find them to be at this time.

At preſent the out ſhoals, which lie about fourteen miles ſouth-weſt of the Cape, are but of five or ſix acres extent, and where they are really dangerous to veſſels of moderate draught, not more than half that number of acres. On the ſhoaleſt part of theſe is, at low water, about ten feet, and here at times the ocean breaks in a tremendous manner, ſpouting, as it were, to the clouds, from the violent agitations of the Gulf Stream, which touches the eaſtern edge of the banks, from whence the declivity is ſudden, that is to ſay, from ten fathoms to no ſoundings. On the ſpot abovementioned, which is firm ſand, it has been the lot of many a good veſſel to ſtrike, in a gale of wind, and to go to pieces. In moderate weather, however, theſe ſhoals may be paſſed over, if neceſſary, at full tide, without much danger, by veſſels not drawing more than eight, nine, or ten feet water.

From this bank, which was formerly of vaſt extent, and called the *Full Moon Shoal*, a ridge runs the whole diſtance to the Cape, about a north-weſt courſe: this ridge, which is about half a mile wide, has on it at low tide generally ten, eleven, and twelve feet water, with gaps at equal intervals, affording good channels of about fifteen or ſixteen feet water. The moſt noted of theſe channels, and moſt uſed by coaſting veſſels, is about one mile and a half from the land, and may eaſily be known by a range of breakers which are always ſeen on the weſt ſide, and a breaker head or two on the eaſtern ſide, which, however, are not ſo conſtant, only appearing when the ſea is conſiderably agitated. This channel is at leaſt two and a half miles wide, and might at full ſea be ſafely paſſed by the largeſt ſhips. Theſe, however, rarely attempt it. The common tides ſwell about ſix feet, and always come from the ſouth-eaſt.—A little north

north of the Cape is good anchoring in four or five fathoms, and with the wind to the weſtward, a boat may land in ſafety, and even bring off caſks of *freſh water*, plenty of which is *to be found every where on the beach, by digging a foot or two, and putting a barrel into the ſand.*

Cape Lookout is ſouth of Cape Hatteras, oppoſite Core ſound, and has already been mentioned as having had an excellent harbour entirely filled up with land ſince the year 1777.

Cape Fear is remarkable for a dangerous ſhoal called, from its form, the Frying pan. This ſhoal lies at the entrance of Cape Fear river, the ſouth part of it, ſix miles from Cape Fear pitch, in latitude 33° 32′.

SWAMPS.] There are two ſwamps that have been called *Diſmal.*

Great Diſmal is on the dividing line between Virginia and North Carolina. It is chiefly owned by two companies. The Virginia company, of whom the Preſident of the United States is one, owns 100,000 acres. The North Carolina company owns 40,000 acres. In the midſt of this Diſmal there is a lake about ſeven miles long, called Drummond's pond. The waters of that lake in rainy ſeaſons diſcharge themſelves to the ſouthward into Paſquetank of North Carolina, and to the north and eaſtward into the branches of the Nanſemond, Elizabeth river, and a river which runs into Currituck ſound; a navigable canal is to be dug from the head of Paſquetank to the head of Elizabeth river in Virginia, the diſtance about fourteen miles. This canal will paſs about a mile to the eaſtward of Drummond's pond, and will receive water from that lake: to paſs through the lake would not be ſafe for low-ſided veſſels. The company by whom this canal is to be cut, have been incorporated by the concurring laws of Virginia, and North Carolina. In September, 1791, the ſubſcription being nearly full, the company choſe their directors, and other officers. By the canal the exports of Norfolk muſt be greatly increaſed.

The other Diſmal is in Currituck county on the ſouth ſide of Albemarle ſound. This Diſmal had not drawn the public attention as an object of importance before the end of the late war, at which time it was chiefly taken up. It is now ſuppoſed to contain one of the moſt valuable rice eſtates in America. In the midſt of this Diſmal there is a lake of about eleven miles long, and ſeven miles broad. In the year 1785, or 1786, Joſiah Collins, Eſq. of Edenton, in company with Meſſrs. Allen and Dickinſon of that place, having taken up near 100,000 acres of land round the lake, reſolving to make a navigable canal from the lake to the head of Skuppernong river: the diſtance five and a half miles. This canal, twenty feet wide, was finiſhed in 1790, and the company in 1791 raiſed above one hundred and twenty acres of rice on the margin. The natural channel by which the lake uſed to diſcharge its waters is now ſtopped, and the waters paſs off by the canal. About five hundred yards from the lake, the company have erected ſeveral ſaw mills. The water in the lake is higher than the ſurface of the ground for about half a mile from the lake on both ſides of the canal; whence it follows, that the company can at any time lay under water about ten thouſand acres of a rich ſwamp, which proves admirably fitted for rice.

PRINCIPAL TOWNS.] Newbern, Edenton, Wilmington, Halifax, Hillſborough, Saliſbury, and Fayetteville, each in their turns have been the ſeat of the General Aſſembly. At preſent they have no capital. According to the conſtitution of this State, the General Aſſemblies are to meet at any place they think fit on their own adjournments. The effect of this power was ſuch as might be expected, in a ſtate where there is no very large city or town nearly central; it was the ſource of conſtant intrigue and diſquietude. The aſſembly ſeldom ſat twice in ſucceſſion in the ſame

place. The public officers were ſcattered over every part of the country. You could ſeldom viſit the governor, the ſecretary, the treaſurer, or the comptroller, in leſs riding than two or three hundred miles. Hence records were loſt, accounts were badly kept, and the State from that ſingle misfortune is ſuppoſed to have loſt more than a million of dollars. It was equally clear to all parties that the government ſhould not be itinerant, and the convention which met in the year 1788, to conſider of the new federal conſtitution according to their inſtructions, took this part of their own conſtitution into their conſideration, and by a very ſmall majority reſolved that the ſeat of government ſhould be fixed at ſome place to be agreed on by commiſſioners, within ten miles of Wake court-houſe. This is a healthy and central ſituation. But an act of the legiſlature became neceſſary to give effect to this ordinance, and in ſubſequent aſſemblies, there has generally been a ſimilar majority, that is to ſay, a majority of one or two to oppoſe the ordinance. The profits that might ariſe to a few publicans and ſhopkeepers at ſome other town in which the Aſſembly might meet, occaſioned more activity and procured more votes than the patriotic deſire of terminating diſputes and ſecuring a quiet, orderly, and good government. For the honour of reaſon, by which we ſhould be governed rather than by paſſion, it is to be wiſhed that our legiſlatures, in ſimilar circumſtances, had not acted in a ſimilar manner.

The General Aſſembly of the State, at their ſeſſion in December, 1791, paſſed a law for carrying the ordinance into effect, and appropriated 10,000l. towards erecting public buildings.

NEWBERN is the largeſt town in the State. It ſtands on a flat, ſandy point of land, formed by the confluence of the rivers Neus on the north, and Trent on the ſouth. Oppoſite the town, the Neus is about a mile and a half, and the Trent three quarters of a mile wide. The town contains about four hundred houſes,* all built of wood, excepting the palace, the church, the gaol, and two dwelling houſes, which are of brick. The palace is a building erected by the province before the revolution, and was formerly the reſidence of the governors. It is large and elegant, two ſtories high, with two wings for offices, a little advanced in front towards the town; theſe wings are connected with the principal building by a circular arcade. This once handſome and well-furniſhed building is now much out of repair. One of the halls is uſed for a dancing, and another for a ſchool-room; which are the only preſent uſes of this palace. The arms of the king of Great Britain ſtill appear in a pediment in front of the building. The Epiſcopal church is a ſmall brick building, with a bell. It is the only houſe for public worſhip in the place. A rum diſtillery has lately been erected in this town. It is the county town of Craven county, and has a court houſe and gaol. The court houſe is raiſed on brick arches ſo as to render the lower part a convenient market place; but the principal marketing is done with the people in their canoes and boats at the river ſide.

EDENTON is ſituated on the north ſide of Albemarle ſound; and has about one hundred and fifty indifferent wood houſes, and a few handſome buildings. It has a brick church for Epiſcopalians, which for many years has been much neglected, and ſerves only to ſhew that the people once had a regard, at leaſt, for the externals of religion. Its local ſituation is advantageous for trade, but not for health. It is the county town of Chowan county, and has a court houſe and gaol. In or near the town lived the proprietary, and the firſt of the royal governors.

* In September 1791, near one third part of this town was conſumed by fire.

WILMINGTON

Wilmington is a town of about one hundred and eighty houſes, ſituated on the eaſt ſide of the eaſtern branch of Cape Fear or Clarendon river, thirty-four miles from the ſea. The courſe of the river, as it paſſes by the town, is from north to ſouth, and is about one hundred and fifty yards wide.

In 1786 a fire broke out, ſuppoſed to have been kindled by negroes, and conſumed about twenty-five or thirty houſes. The town is rebuilding ſlowly.

Hillsborough is an inland town, ſituated in a high, healthy, and fertile country, one hundred and eighty miles north of the weſt from Newbern. It is ſettled by about ſixty or ſeventy families.

Salisbury is agreeably ſituated, about five miles from Yadkin river, and contains about ninety dwelling houſes.

Halifax is a pretty town, and ſtands on the weſtern bank of the Roanoke, about ſix miles below the falls, and has about thirty or forty dwelling houſes.

Fayetteville ſtands on the weſt ſide of Clarendon, commonly called Cape Fear river, and about a mile from its banks. It is well-built on both ſides of a creek, from which the town was formerly called Croſs Creek. Two ſmall creeks unite near the town, and an iſland, juſt below the junction, divides the creek. Some perſon took it into his head that the creeks croſſed each other without mixing their waters; and the ſtrangeneſs or improbability of the thing, as in many other caſes, ſeems to have been the reaſon, why it was believed. Since the peace, this town has flouriſhed, but a conſiderable part of it was burnt in 1792. It is ſituated on a ſettlement of Scotch Highlanders.

Washington is ſituated in the county of Beaufort, on the north ſide of Tar river, in latitude 35° 30′, diſtant from Ocrecok inlet ninety miles. From this town is exported tobacco of the Peterſburgh quality, pork, beef, Indian corn, peas, beans, pitch, tar, turpentine, roſin, &c. and pine boards, ſhingles, and oak ſtaves. About one hundred and thirty veſſels enter annually at the cuſtom houſe in this town.

Greeneville, ſo called after Major-general Nathaniel Greene, is ſituated in Pitt county, on the ſouth bank of Tar river, in latitude 35° 35′, diſtant from Ocrecok inlet one hundred and ten miles. At this town there is an academy eſtabliſhed, called the Pitt Academy.

Tarborough is ſituated in the county of Edgecomb, on the ſouth bank of Tar river, in latitude 35° 45′, diſtant from Ocrecok inlet one hundred and forty miles. At this town large quantities of tobacco of the Peterſburgh quality, pork, beef, and Indian corn, are collected for exportation.

Face of the Country, Soil, and Productions.] North Carolina, in its whole width, for ſixty miles from the ſea, is a dead level. A great proportion of this tract lies in foreſt, and is barren. On the banks of ſome of the rivers, particularly of the Roanoke, the land is fertile and good. Interſperſed through the other parts are glades of rich ſwamp, and ridges of oak land, of a black, fertile ſoil. In all this champaign country, marine productions are found by digging eighteen or twenty feet below the ſurface of the ground. The ſea coaſt, the ſounds, inlets, and the lower parts of the rivers, have uniformly a muddy, ſoft bottom. Sixty or eighty miles from the ſea, the country riſes into hills and mountains, as deſcribed under this head in South Carolina and Georgia.

Wheat, rye, barley, oats, and flax, grow well in the back hilly country. Indian corn and pulſe of all kinds in all parts. Ground peas run on the ſurface of the earth, and are covered by hand with a light mould, and the pods grow under ground: they are eaten raw or roaſted, and taſte much like a hazlenut. Cotton and hemp are alſo

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conſiderably cultivated here, and might be raiſed in much greater plenty. The cotton is planted yearly: the ſtalk dies with the froſt. The labour of one man will produce one thouſand pounds in the ſeeds, or two hundred and fifty fit for manufacturing. The country is generally friendly to the raiſing of ſheep, which yield from three quarters of a pound to two pounds and a half of wool, which is ſhort and not very fine.

It is no uncommon thing for the farmer to mark from five hundred to one thouſand calves in a year. No farther attention is paid to them till they are fit for ſlaughter; then they are taken up, killed, barrelled, and ſent to the Weſt India market. Their pork is raiſed with as little trouble, large quantities of which, before the war, were ſent to New England, particularly to Boſton and Salem.

TRADE.] A great proportion of the produce of the back country, conſiſting of tobacco, wheat, Indian corn, &c. is carried to market in South Carolina and Virginia. The ſouthern interior countries, carry their produce to Charleſtown; and the northern to Peterſburgh in Virginia. The exports from the lower parts of the State are tar, pitch, turpentine, roſin, Indian corn, boards, ſcantling, ſtaves, ſhingles, furs, tobacco, pork, lard, tallow, bees-wax, myrtle-wax, and a few other articles, amounting in the year, ending in September 30th, 1791, to 524,548 dollars. Their trade is chiefly with the Weſt Indies and the northern States. From the latter they receive flour, cheeſe, cyder, apples, potatoes, iron wares, cabinet wares, hats, and dry goods of all kinds, imported from Great Britain, France, and Holland, teas, &c. From the Weſt Indies, rum, ſugar, and coffee.

CLIMATE, DISEASES, &c.] In the flat country, near the ſea coaſt, the inhabitants, during the ſummer and autumn, are ſubject to intermitting fevers, which often prove fatal, as bilious or nervous ſymptoms prevail. Theſe fevers are ſeldom immediately dangerous to the natives who are temperate, or to ſtrangers who are prudent. They, however, if ſuffered to continue for any length of time, bring on other diſorders, which greatly impair the natural vigor of the mind, debilitate the conſtitution, and terminate in death. The countenances of the inhabitants during theſe ſeaſons, have generally a pale yelloviſh caſt, occaſioned by the prevalence of bilious ſymptoms. They have very little of the bloom and freſhneſs of the people in the northern States.

It has been obſerved that more of the inhabitants, of the men eſpecially, die during the winter by pleuriſies and peripneumonies, than during the warm months by bilious complaints. Theſe pleuriſies are brought on by intemperance, and by an imprudent expoſure to the weather. Were the inhabitants cautious and prudent in theſe reſpects, it is alledged by their phyſicians, that they might in general eſcape the danger of theſe fatal diſeaſes. The uſe of flannel next to the ſkin during the winter, is reckoned an excellent preventative of the diſeaſes incident to this climate. The weſtern hilly parts of the State are as healthy as any of the United States. That country is fertile, full of ſprings and rivulets of pure water. The air there is ſerene a great part of the year, and the inhabitants live to old age, which cannot ſo generally be ſaid of the inhabitants of the flat country. Though the days in ſummer are extremely hot, the nights are cool and refreſhing. Autumn is very pleaſant, both in regard to the temperature and ſerenity of the weather, and the richneſs and variety of the vegetable productions which the ſeaſon affords. The winters are ſo mild in ſome years, that autumn may be ſaid to continue till ſpring. Wheat harveſt is the beginning of June, and that of Indian corn early in September.

NATURAL

NATURAL HISTORY, MANUFACTURES, &c.] The large natural growth of the plains in the low country is almoſt univerſally pitch pine, which is a tall, handſome tree, far ſuperior to the pitch pine of the northern States. This tree may be called the ſtaple commodity of North Carolina. It affords pitch, tar, turpentine, and various kinds of lumber, which together conſtitute at leaſt one half of the exports of this State. This pine is of two kinds, the common and the long-leaved. The latter has a leaf ſhaped like other pines, but is nearly half a yard in length, hanging in large cluſters. No country produces finer white and red oak for ſtaves. The ſwamps abound with cyprus and bay trees. The latter is an evergreen, and is food for the cattle in the winter. The leaves are ſhaped like thoſe of the peach tree, but larger. The moſt common kinds of timber in the back country are, oak, walnut, and pine. A ſpecies of oak grows in the moiſt, ſandy ſoil, called black jack. It ſeldom grows larger than eight or nine inches diameter. It is worthy of remark, that the trees in the low country, near the ſea coaſt, are loaded with vaſt quantities of a long ſpecies of moſs, which, by abſorbing the noxious vapour that is exhaled from ſtagnated waters, contributes much, it is ſuppoſed, to the healthineſs of the climate. This hypotheſis is confirmed by experience, ſince it is commonly obſerved, that the country is much leſs healthy for a few years after having been cleared, than while in a ſtate of nature.

The Miſsletoe is common in the back country. This is a ſhrub which differs in kind, perhaps, from all others. It never grows out of the earth, but on the tops of trees. The roots (if they may be ſo called) run under the bark of the tree, and incorporate with the wood. It is an evergreen, reſembling the garden box wood.

The principal wild fruits are plums, grapes, ſtrawberries, and blackberries.

The country is generally covered with herbage of various kinds, and a ſpecies of wild graſs. It abounds with medicinal plants and roots; among others are the ginſeng; Virginia ſnake root; Seneca ſnake root, an herb of the emetic kind, like epicacuana; Lyon's heart, which is a ſovereign remedy for the bite of a ſerpent. A ſpecies of the ſenſitive plant is alſo found here; it is a ſort of brier, the ſtalk of which dies with the froſt, but the root lives through the winter, and ſhoots again in the ſpring. The lighteſt touch of a leaf cauſes it to turn and cling cloſe to the ſtalk. Although it ſo eaſily takes the alarm, and apparently ſhrinks from danger, in the ſpace of two minutes after it is touched, it perfectly recovers its former ſituation. The mucipula veneris is alſo found here. The rich bottoms are overgrown with canes. The leaves are green all the winter, and afford an excellent food for cattle. They are of a ſweetiſh taſte, like the ſtalks of green corn, which they in many reſpects reſemble.

There is a long ridge of lime-ſtone, which, extending in a ſouth-weſterly direction, croſſes the whole State of North Carolina. It croſſes Dan river to the weſtward of the Sawro towns, croſſes the Yadkin about fifty miles north-weſt from Saliſbury, and thence proceeds by the way of King's mountain to the ſouthern States. No lime-ſtone has been found to the eaſtward of that ridge. A ſpecies of rock has been found in ſeveral places, of which lime is made, which is obviouſly a concretion of marine ſhells. The State is traverſed nearly in the ſame direction by another ſtratum of rocks which paſſes near Warrenton. It is a circumſtance worthy of obſervation that the ſprings of water on the north-weſt ſide of the ridge are apt to fail in dry ſeaſons; on the ſouth-weſt ſide they ſeldom fail.

The river Yadkin, where it paſſes Saliſbury, is about four hundred yards broad, but it is reduced between two hills, about twenty-five miles to the ſouthward of that town, to the width of eighty or one hundred feet. For two miles it is narrow and rapid, but the moſt narrow and moſt rapid part is not above half a mile in length.

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In this narrow part, ſhad are caught in the ſpring of the year, by hoop nets, in the eddies, as faſt as the ſtrongeſt men are able to throw them out. Perhaps there is not in the United States a more eligible ſituation for a large manufacturing town. Boats with forty or fifty hogſheads paſs eaſily from theſe rapids to Georgetown.

The late war, by which North Carolina was greatly convulſed, put a ſtop to ſeveral iron works. At preſent there are four or five furnaces in the State that are in blaſt, and a proportionable number of forges. There is one in Guilford county, one in Surry, and one in Wilkes, all on the Yadkin; and one in Lincoln. The quality of the iron is excellent.

One paper mill has lately been erected at Salem, by the Moravians, to great advantage.

Religion.] The weſtern parts of this State, which have been ſettled within the laſt forty years, are chiefly inhabited by Preſbyterians from Pennſylvania, the deſcendants of people from the north of Ireland, and are exceedingly attached to the doctrines, diſcipline, and uſages of the church of Scotland. They are a regular induſtrious people. Almoſt all the inhabitants between the Catawba and Yadkin rivers are of this denomination, and they are in general well ſupplied with a ſenſible and learned miniſtry. There are interſperſed ſome ſettlements of Germans, both Lutherans and Calviniſts, but they have very few miniſters.

The Moravians have ſeveral flouriſhing ſettlements in this State. In 1751, they purchaſed of Lord Granville one hundred thouſand acres of land, between Dan and Yadkin rivers, about ten miles ſouth of Pilot mountain, in Surry county, and called it Wachovia, after an eſtate of Count Zinzendorf, in Auſtria. In 1755, this tract, by an act of Aſſembly, was made a ſeparate pariſh by the name of Dobb's pariſh. The firſt ſettlement, called Bethabara, was begun in 1753, by a number of the brethren from Pennſylvania, in a very wild, uninhabited country, which, from that time, began to be rapidly ſettled by farmers from the middle States.

In 1759, Bethany, a regular village, was laid out and ſettled. In 1766, Salem, which is now the principal ſettlement, and nearly in the center of Wachovia, was ſettled by a collection of tradeſmen. The ſame conſtitution and regulations are eſtabliſhed here, as in other regular ſettlements of the united brethren. Beſides, there are in Wachovia three churches, one in Friedland, one in Friedburg, and another at Hope, each of which has a miniſter of the brethren's church. Theſe people, by their induſtry and attention to various branches of manufacture, are very uſeful to the country around them.

The Friends or Quakers have a ſettlement in New Garden, in Guilford county, and ſeveral congregations at Perquimins and Paſquetank. The Methodiſts and Baptiſts are numerous and increaſing. Beſides the denominations already mentioned, there is a very numerous body of people in this, and in all the ſouthern States, who cannot properly be claſſed with any ſect of Chriſtians, having never made any profeſſion of Chriſtianity.

The inhabitants of Wilmington, Newbern, Edenton, and Halifax diſtricts, making about three-fifths of the State, once profeſſed themſelves of the epiſcopal church: the clergy in theſe diſtricts were chiefly miſſionaries, and in forming their political attachments, at the commencement of the late war, perſonal ſafety, or real intereſt, or perhaps a conviction of the impolicy of oppoſing Great Britain, from whence they received their ſalaries, induced them almoſt univerſally to declare themſelves in favour of the Britiſh government, and to emigrate. There may be one or two of the original clergy remaining, but at preſent they have no particular paſtoral charge; indeed

the inhabitants in the diſtricts above mentioned ſeem now to be making the experiment, whether Chriſtianity can exiſt long in a country where there is no viſible Chriſtian church: the Baptiſts and Methodiſts have ſent a number of miſſionary preachers into theſe diſtricts, and ſome of them have pretty large congregations; it is not improbable, that one or the other of theſe denominations, and perhaps both, may acquire conſiſtency, and eſtabliſh permanent churches.

COLLEGES AND ACADEMIES.] The General Aſſembly of North Carolina, in December, 1789, paſſed a law incorporating forty gentlemen, five from each diſtrict, as truſtees of the univerſity of North Carolina; to this univerſity they gave, by a ſubſequent law, all the debts due to the State from ſheriffs or other holders of public money, and which had been due before the year 1783; they alſo gave it all eſcheated property within the State. Whenever the truſtees ſhall have collected a ſufficient ſum of the old debts, or from the ſale of eſcheated property, the value of which is conſiderable, to pay the expenſe of erecting buildings, they are to fix on a proper place and proceed to finiſh the buildings: a conſiderable quantity of land has already been given to the univerſity. The General Aſſembly, in December, 1791, loaned 5000l. to the truſtees, to enable them to proceed immediately with their buildings.

There is a very good academy at Warrenton, another at Williamſborough in Granville, and three or four others in the State, of conſiderable note.

POPULATION, CHARACTER, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] From the marſhal's return it appears, that the number of inhabitants, in the year 1791, was 393,751, of whom 293,179 were citizens: perhaps there are few inſtances of ſuch a rapid increaſe of inhabitants as we find in this State; in the year 1710, we are well aſſured, that the number of inhabitants in North Carolina did not exceed 6000: this extraordinary increaſe muſt ariſe, in a great meaſure, from the migration of inhabitants from other States, or from diſtant countries; but this will not fully account for the preſent ſtate of population in North Carolina. By examining the return, we find there are 147,494 white male inhabitants; we alſo find, that the number of males under ſixteen years exceeds the number above ſixteen by 7518, which is about one-nineteenth of the whole. This is a very remarkable fact, as it reſpects the increaſe of the human ſpecies. We find a ſmall difference in the States of Delaware, Virginia, and Georgia, in favour of thoſe under ſixteen. The difference in Kentucky is ſimilar to that in North Carolina. In the other States, the number above ſixteen is greateſt, and in the ſeveral kingdoms in Europe, as far as our information reaches, the inhabitants above ſixteen are univerſally much more numerous than thoſe under that age. The great difference that appears in North Carolina in favour of children, cannot be explained by ſuppoſing that the climate is ſickly, for we know that ſuch climates are equally fatal to young and old. The idea too of a ſickly climate does not accord with the prodigious increaſe of inhabitants in this State, nor with another fact, viz. that there is a conſiderable proportion of very old inhabitants in the State. To explain this we muſt obſerve, that the human ſpecies, and all other animals, are found to increaſe in proportion to the comforts of life, and the eaſe with which they can ſupport their progeny. Remove the rigours of an inhoſpitable climate, and the more uniform diſſuaſive to matrimony, the *apprehended* difficulty of ſupporting a family, and the human ſpecies would double, not in twenty but in fifteen years. In North Carolina, neither the cold of winter, nor the heat of ſummer, are in the back country at all diſagreeable; land continues to be plenty and cheap; grain is raiſed with ſo much eaſe, and the trouble of providing for cattle in winter ſo trifling, that a man ſupports his family with half the labour that is required in the cold climates. Under theſe ad-

vantages, we are not to wonder that people in all ranks of life ſhould marry very young; we have heard of grandmothers in that State who were not more than twenty-ſeven years old.

The North Carolinians are moſtly planters, and live from half a mile to three and four miles from each other on their plantations; they have a plentiful country, no ready market for their produce, little intercourſe with ſtrangers, and a natural fondneſs for ſociety, which induce them to be hoſpitable to travellers.

The general topics of converſation among the men, when cards, the bottle, and occurrences of the day do not intervene, are negroes, the prices of indigo, rice, tobacco, &c. They appear to have little taſte for the ſciences. Political inquiries and philoſophical diſquiſitions are attended to but by a few men of genius and induſtry, and are too laborious for the minds of the people at large. Leſs attention and reſpect are paid to the women here, than in thoſe parts of the United States where the inhabitants have made greater progreſs in the arts of civilized life; indeed it is a truth confirmed by obſervation, that in proportion to the advancement of civilization, in the ſame proportion will reſpect for the women be increaſed; ſo that the progreſs of civilization in countries, in ſtates, in towns, and in families, may be marked by the degree of attention which is paid by huſbands to their wives, and by the young men to the young women.

Temperance and induſtry are not to be reckoned among the virtues of the North Carolinians; the time which they waſte in drinking, idling, and gambling, leaves them very little opportunity to improve their plantations or their minds; the improvement of the former is left to their overſeers and negroes; the improvement of the latter is too often neglected. Were the time which is thus waſted, ſpent in cultivating the ſoil, and in treaſuring up knowledge, they might be both wealthy and learned; for they have a productive country, and are by no means deſtitute of genius.

Time that is not employed in ſtudy or uſeful labour, in every country, is generally ſpent in hurtful or innocent exerciſes, according to the cuſtom of the place, or the taſte of the parties. The citizens of North Carolina, who are not better employed, ſpend their time in drinking, or gaming at cards and dice, in cock-fighting or horſe-racing.

We are told, that a ſtrange and very barbarous practice prevailed among the lower claſs of people, before the revolution, in the back parts of Virginia, North and South Carolinas, and Georgia; it was called *gouging*, and was neither more nor leſs than a man, when boxing, putting out the eye of his antagoniſt with his thumb. How quick, under a mild government, is the reformation of manners! We have lately been told, that in a particular county, where, at the quarterly court twenty years ago, a day ſeldom paſſed without ten or fifteen boxing matches, it is now a rare thing to hear of a fight.

North Carolina, as already obſerved, has had a rapid growth; in the year 1710 it contained but about 1200 fencible men; it is now, in point of numbers, the fourth State in the Union. During this amazing progreſs in population, which has been greatly aided by emigrations from Pennſylvania, Virginia, and other States, while each has been endeavouring to increaſe his fortune, the human mind, like an unweeded garden, has been ſuffered to ſhoot up in wild diſorder. But when we conſider, that, during the late revolution, this State produced many diſtinguiſhed patriots and politicians, that ſhe ſent her thouſands to the defence of Georgia and South Carolina, and gave occaſional ſuccours to Virginia; when we conſider too the difficulties ſhe has had to encounter from a mixture of inhabitants, collected from dif-

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ferent parts, ſtrangers to each other, and intent upon gain, we ſhall find many things worthy of praiſe in her general character.

CONSTITUTION.] By the conſtitution of this State, which was ratified in December, 1776, all legiſlative authority is veſted in two diſtinct branches, both dependent on the people, viz. a Senate and Houſe of Commons, which, when convened for buſineſs, are ſtyled the General Aſſembly.

The ſenate is compoſed of repreſentatives, one for each county, choſen annually by ballot.

The houſe of commons conſiſts of repreſentatives choſen in the ſame way, two for each county, and one for each of the towns of Edenton, Newbern, Wilmington, Saliſbury, Hillſborough, Halifax, and Fayetteville.

The qualifications for a ſenator, are one year's reſidence immediately preceding his election in the county in which he is choſen, and 300 acres of land in fee.

A member of the houſe of commons muſt have uſually reſided in the county in which he is elected one year immediately preceding his election, and for ſix months ſhall have poſſeſſed, and continue to poſſeſs, in the county which he repreſents, not leſs than 100 acres of land in fee, or for the term of his own life.

A freeman of twenty-one years of age, who has been an inhabitant in the State twelve months immediately preceding the day of any election, and who had poſſeſſed a freehold of fifty acres of land within the county for ſix months next before, and at the day of election, is entitled to vote for a member of the ſenate.

All freemen of twenty-one years of age, who have been inhabitants of the State the year next before the election, and have paid public taxes, may vote for members of the houſe of commons.

The ſenate and houſe of commons, when convened, chooſe each their own ſpeaker, and are judges of the qualifications and elections of their members: they jointly, by ballot, at their firſt meeting after each annual election, chooſe a governor for one year, who is not eligible to that office longer than three years, in ſix ſucceſſive years, and who muſt poſſeſs a freehold of more than 1000l. and have been an inhatant of the State above five years. They, in the ſame manner, and at the ſame time, elect ſeven perſons to be a council of ſtate for one year, to adviſe the governor in the execution of his office. They appoint a treaſurer or treaſurers for the State. They trennially chooſe a ſtate ſecretary. They jointly appoint judges of the ſupreme courts of law and equity; judges of admiralty, and the attorney general, who are commiſſioned by the governor, and hold their offices during good behaviour. They prepare bills, which muſt be read three times in each houſe, and be ſigned by the ſpeaker of both houſes before they paſs into laws.

Judges of the ſupreme court, members of the council, judges of admiralty, treaſurers, ſecretaries, attorney-generals for the State, clerks of record, clergymen, perſons denying the being of a God, the truth of the Proteſtant religion, or the divine authority of the Old and New Teſtament, receivers of public monies, whoſe accounts are unſettled, military officers in actual ſervice, are all incligible to a ſeat either in the ſenate or houſe of commons; juſtices of the peace, being recommended by the repreſentatives, are commiſſioned by the governor, and hold their offices during good behaviour. The conſtitution allows of no religious eſtabliſhment, the legiſlature are authorized to regulate entails ſo as to prevent perpetuities. A majority of both houſes is neceſſary to do buſineſs.

HISTORY.] The hiſtory of North Carolina is leſs known than that of any of the other States; from the beſt accounts that hiſtory affords, the firſt permanent ſettle-

ment in North Carolina was made about the year 1710, by a number of Palatines from Germany, who had been reduced to circumſtances of great indigence by a calamitous war. The proprietors of Carolina, knowing that the value of their lands depended on the ſtrength of their ſettlements, determined to give every poſſible encouragement to ſuch emigrants. Ships were accordingly provided for their tranſportation, and inſtructions were given to Governor Tynte, to allow 100 acres of land for every man, woman, and child, free of quit rents, for the firſt ten years; but at the expiration of that term, to pay one penny per acre annual rent for ever, according to the uſages and cuſtoms of the province. Upon their arrival Governor Tynte granted them a tract of land in North Carolina, ſince called Albemarle and Bath precincts, where they ſettled, and flattered themſelves with having found in the hideous wilderneſs, a happy retreat from the deſolations of a war which then raged in Europe.

In the year 1712, a dangerous conſpiracy was formed by the Coree and Tuſcorora tribes of Indians, to murder and expel this infant colony. The foundation for this conſpiracy is not known; probably they were offended at the encroachments upon their hunting ground. They managed their conſpiracy with great cunning and profound ſecrecy. They ſurrounded their principal town with a breaſt work to ſecure their families. Here the warriors convened to the number of 1200. From this place of rendezvous they ſent out ſmall parties, by different roads, who entered the ſettlement under the maſk of friendſhip. At the change of the full moon all of them had agreed to begin their murderous operations the ſame night. When the night came, they entered the houſes of the planters, demanding proviſions, and pretending to be offended, fell to murdering men, women, and children, without mercy or diſtinction. One hundred and thirty-ſeven ſettlers, among whom were a Swiſs baron, and almoſt all the poor Palatines that had lately come into the country, were ſlaughtered the firſt night. Such was the ſecrecy and diſpatch of the Indians in this expedition, that none knew what had befallen his neighbour until the barbarians had reached his own door. Some few, however, eſcaped, and gave the alarm. The militia aſſembled in arms, and kept watch day and night, until the news of the ſad diſaſter had reached the province of South Carolina. Governor Craven loſt no time in ſending a force to their relief. The Aſſembly voted 4000l. for the ſervice of the war. A body of 600 militia, under the command of Colonel Barnwell, and 366 Indians of different tribes, with different commanders, marched with great expedition through a hideous wilderneſs to their aſſiſtance. In their firſt encounter with the Indians they killed 300 and took 100 priſoners. After this defeat, the Tuſcororas retreated to their fortified town, which was ſhortly after ſurrendered to Colonel Barnwell. In this expedition it was computed that near a thouſand Tuſcororas were killed, wounded, and taken. The remainder of the tribe ſoon after abandoned their country, and joined the Five Nations, with whom they have ever ſince remained. After this, the infant colony remained in peace, and continued to flouriſh under the general government of South Carolina till about the year 1729, when ſeven of the proprietors, for a valuable conſideration, veſted their property and juriſdiction in the crown, and the colony was erected into a ſeparate province, by the name of North Carolina, and its preſents limit eſtabliſhed by an order of George II. From this period to the revolution in 1776, the hiſtory of North Carolina is unpubliſhed, and of courſe unknown, except to thoſe who have had acceſs to the records of the province. Some of the moſt important events that have ſince taken place, have been already mentioned in the general hiſtory of the United States.

TER-

TERRITORY SOUTH OF OHIO,
OR THE TENNESSEE GOVERNMENT.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		
Length	360	between	6° 20′ and 16° 30′ W. Longitude
Breadth	105	between	35° and 36° 30′ N. Latitude

BOUNDARIES.] THE Tenneſſee government, or the territory of the United States, ſouth of the river Ohio, is that tract of country which was ceded to the United States by the State of North Carolina in the year 1789. It is bounded north, by Kentucky and part of Virginia; eaſt, by the Stone, Yellow, Iron, and Bald mountains, which divides it from North Carolina; ſouth, by South Carolina and Georgia; weſt, by the Miſſiſſippi.*

CIVIL DIVISIONS AND POPULATION.] This extenſive diſtrict is divided into the following counties:

	Counties.	No. Inhabit.
Waſhington diſtrict.	Waſhington,	5872
	Sullivan,	4447
	Green,	7741
	Hawkins,	6970
	South of French Broad,	3619
Mero diſtrict.	Davidſon,	3459
	Sumner,	2196
	Tenneſſee,	1387
	Total	35691

The above is according to the returns made by the governor of this territory in 1791. Owing to imperfect returns made to him, it does not comprehend the whole number of inhabitants. We have no *data* on which to calculate the probable deficiency. In 1788, the number of inhabitants were reckoned at about 40,000; they muſt have greatly increaſed ſince that period. In 1765, there were but about ten families ſettled weſt of the Kanhawa; ſo many had joined them in 1773, that the ſettlement weſt of the Kanhawa was erected into a county, and in 1776 ſubdivided into three counties.

The inhabitants of this diſtrict emigrated chiefly from Pennſylvania, that part of Virginia which lies weſt of the Blue Ridge. The anceſtors of theſe people were generally of the Scotch nation, ſome of whom emigrated firſt to Ireland, and from thence to America. A few Germans and Engliſh are intermixed. The proportion of the whites to the black in this diſtrict, judging from the foregoing imperfect cenſus, is as ten to one. In 1788, it was thought there were twenty white perſons to one negroe. The erection of this territory into a ſeparate government, it is believed, will tend to leſſen the negroe population.

SOIL.] The farmers on Cumberland river, for the ſake of deſcribing their lands, diſtinguiſh them by firſt, ſecond, and third quality. Land of the firſt quality will bear Indian corn or hemp, but it will not bear wheat without great reduction. Land of the ſecond quality does not bear wheat to advantage until it has been reduced by two or three crops of corn, hemp, tobacco, or cotton. Land of the third quality bears every kind of grain that is uſually ſown on dry ground in the Atlantic States.

* About ſeven and a half millions of acres of this tract only has been yet purchaſed from the Indians.

It

It is agreed by all who have viſited the Cumberland ſettlement, that 100 buſhels of Indian corn are frequently gathered from an acre of their beſt land; ſixty or ſeventy buſhels from an acre is very common, but the farmer who expects to gather ſuch a crop, muſt be careful, while the corn is ſoft, to guard it againſt bears and racoons. Wheat, barley, oats, rye, buckwheat, Indian corn, peaſe, beans, potatoes of both ſorts, flax, hemp, tobacco, indigo, rice, and cotton, have already been planted in that ſettlement, and they all thrive in great perfection; the uſual crop of cotton is 800 pounds to the acre; the ſtaple is long and fine. It is alledged, however, that the lands on the ſmall rivers that run into the Miſſiſſippi, have a decided preference to thoſe on the Cumberland river, for the production of cotton and indigo. No experiments have been made on land near the Miſſiſſippi within the ceded territory; but there is a ſmall ſettlement farther down the river, within the limits of the United States, on a ſimilar ſoil, where the growth and quality of cotton is ſo remarkable, that its culture is more profitable than any other crop. The ſoil on thoſe rivers is deep and light, having a ſmall mixture of ſand with a black earth; hence, as the planters alledge, it proves favourable to the culture of all kinds of roots, as well as of indigo and cotton.

Climate.] Moderate and healthy. In the tract lying between the Great Iſland, as it is called, and the Kanhawa, the ſummers are remarkably cool, and the air rather moiſt. South-weſt of this, as far as the Indian towns, the climate is much warmer, and the ſoil better adapted to the productions of the ſouthern States.

The diſeaſes to which the adult inhabitants are moſt liable, are pluriſies, rheumatiſms, and rarely agues and fevers: ſo healthy have been the inhabitants, that from the firſt ſettlement of the country to 1788, not a ſingle phyſician had ſettled among them. It is to the inhabitants a real advantage, that they are almoſt beyond the reach of thoſe luxuries which are enjoyed, and thoſe epidemical diſeaſes which are conſequently frequent, in populous towns on the ſea coaſt. An inhabitant of this diſtrict writes, "Our phyſicians are, a fine climate, healthy, robuſt mothers and fathers, plain and plentiful diet, and enough of exerciſe: there is not a regular bred phyſician reſiding in the whole diſtrict."

Rivers and Mountains.] The Tenneſſee, called alſo the Cherokee, and abſurdly the Hogohege river, is the largeſt branch of the Ohio; it riſes in the mountains of Virginia, latitude 37°, and purſes a courſe of about 1000 miles ſouth and ſouth-weſt, nearly to latitude 34°, receiving from both ſides a number of large tributary ſtreams; it then wheels about to the north, in a circuitous courſe, and mingles with the Ohio, nearly ſixty miles from its mouth: from its entrance into the Ohio, to the Muſcle ſhoals, 250 miles, the current is very gentle, and the river deep enough, at all ſeaſons, for the largeſt row boats: the Muſcle ſhoals are about twenty miles in length. At this place the river ſpreads to the width of three miles, and forms a number of iſlands, and is of difficult paſſage, except when there is a ſwell in the river. From theſe ſhoals to the whirl or ſuck, the place where the river breaks through the Great Ridge, or Cumberland mountain, is 250 miles, the navigation all the way excellent.

The Cumberland mountain, in its whole extent, from the Great Kanhawa to the Tenneſſee, conſiſts of the moſt ſtupendous piles of craggy rocks of any mountain in the weſtern country; in ſeveral parts of it, for miles, it is inacceſſible even to the Indians on foot; in one place particularly, near the ſummit of the mountain, there is a moſt remarkable ledge of rocks of about thirty miles in length and 200 feet thick, ſhewing a perpendicular face to the ſouth-eaſt more noble and grand than any artificial

ficial fortification in the known world, and apparently equal in point of regularity. Through this ſtupendous pile, according to a modern hypotheſis, had the waters of all the upper branches of the Tenneſſee to force their way; the attempt would have been impracticable at any other place than the one mentioned for more than 100 miles eaſtwardly. Here then ſeems to have been the chaſm, left by the Creator, to convey off thoſe waters which muſt otherwiſe have overflowed, and rendered uſeleſs a vaſt tract of valuable country, encompaſſed within the mountains.

The *Whirl*, as it is called, is in about latitude 35°; it is reckoned a greater curioſity than the burſting of the Patomak through the Blue Ridge, which is ſo inimitably deſcribed by Mr. Jefferſon. The river, which a few miles above is half a mile wide, is here compreſſed to the width of about 100 yards; juſt as it enters the mountain, a large rock projects from the northern ſhore in an oblique direction, which renders the bed of the river ſtill narrower, and cauſes a ſudden bend; the water of the river is of courſe thrown with great rapidity againſt the ſouthern ſhore, whence it abounds around the point of the rock and produces the whirl, which is about eighty yards in circumference. Canoes have often been carried into this whirl, and eſcaped by the dexterity of the rowers without damage. In leſs than a mile below the whirl, the river ſpreads into its common width, and, except Muſcle Shoals, already mentioned, flows beautiful and placid till it mingles with the Ohio.

Six miles above the whirl are the Chiccamogga towns, on the banks of the river, and of a large creek of the ſame name; from theſe towns to the mouth of the Hiwaſſee is ſixty miles by water, and about forty by land; this river is a ſouth branch of the Tenneſſee, and navigable till it penetrates the mountains on its ſouth ſide; up this river, in theſe mountains, a mine has been diſcovered and ore taken, from which, it is ſaid, gold was extracted by an artiſt, while the Britiſh were in poſſeſſion of Georgia: it is certain, but few Indians know the ſpot, and thoſe who do are very anxious to keep it a ſecret: the gentleman who gave the author this information has been within view of the place. The mountain is very high and barren, and has ſeveral of the appearances deſcribed by mineraliſts. The diſcovery was made by means of the river's undermining the baſe of a large cliff or ſpur of the mountain, which occaſioned a great column of the earth or rock to tumble into the river; this diſrupture diſcovered the vein of yellow metal at a great depth. The climate, the fine ſprings, and fertile plains, render the banks of this river a moſt delightful place of ſettlement. From a branch of the Hiwaſſee, called Amoia, there is but a ſhort portage to a branch of the Mobile, and the road all the diſtance firm and level.

Paſſing up the Tenneſſee, ſixty miles from the mouth of the Hiwaſſee, you come to the mouth of Peleſon or Clinch river, from the north, which is large and navigable for boats upwards of 200 miles, receiving in its courſe, beſides inferior ſtreams, Powell's river, which is nearly as large as the main river, and boatable 100 miles: this laſt-mentioned river runs through Powell's valley, an excellent tract of country abounding with fine ſprings.

From the Peleſon to the junction of the Holſtein and Tenneſſee is computed forty miles; this laſt is the branch which formerly gave its name to the main river, not from its ſize, but from its notoriety, having on its banks a vaſt number of Indian villages, and the chief town of the Cherokee Indians, called Chota, and was therefore called *Cherokee* river; but the name of Tenneſſee has of late obtained: it croſſes the valley at nearly right angles with the mountains, and has on its banks a number of beautiful plains, which are chiefly improved as corn fields by the Indians. In 1788, the whites had advanced their ſettlements within ten miles of the Indian villages.

Forty

Forty miles from the Tenneſſee, up the Holſtein branch, comes in Frank river, vulgarly called French Broad, four or five hundred yards wide; thence, purſuing the Holſtein 200 miles, you come to Long Iſland, which is the higheſt navigation yet uſed; thence about 100 miles is the ſource of the river. One mile below Long Iſland comes in North Holſtein, and 20 miles above it the Wattago; the former is 100 yards wide at its mouth, and, with a ſmall expenſe, might be made navigable to Campbell's Salines, ſeventy miles farther up. On the banks of the Holſtein are many mines of iron ore, of the beſt kind, ſome of which have been opened and worked to advantage, and enough might be made to ſupply the whole weſtern country; and theſe mines are the more valuable, as there is ſaid to be none of this ore near the Miſſiſſippi, and very little north of the Ohio. In the Tenneſſee and its upper branches are great numbers of fiſh, ſome of which are very large and of an excellent flavour.

The head waters of the great Kanhawa are in the weſtern part of North Carolina, in the moſt eaſtern ridge of the Allegany or Appalachian mountains, and ſouth of the 36th degree of latitude. Its head branches encircle thoſe of the Holſtein, from which they are ſeparated by the Iron mountain, through which it paſſes, ten miles above the lead mines; thence ſteering its courſe along the foot of the Allegany mountain, until it receives Little river from the eaſt, it turns to the north, which is its general courſe till it meets the Ohio. About 60 miles from Little river it receives Green Briar river from the eaſt, which is the only conſiderable tributary ſtream in all that diſtance. About forty miles below the mouth of Green Briar river, (in Virginia) in the Kanhawa, is a remarkable cataract. A large rock, a little elevated in the middle, croſſes the bed of the river, over which the water ſhoots and falls about fifty feet perpendicularly, except at one ſide, where the deſcent is more gradual.

The Shawanee, now called Cumberland river, of the ſouthern branches of the Ohio, is next in ſize to the Tenneſſee, and extends eaſtwardly nearly as far, but runs a much more direct courſe; it is navigable for ſmall craft as far as Naſhville; from the ſouth it receives Harper's, Coney, Obey's, and Clear Fork rivers; and from the north, Red and Rock Caſtle rivers, beſides many ſmaller ſtreams.

The land on the waters of Tenneſſee and Cumberland rivers is generally well timbered; in ſome places there are glades of rich land without timber, but theſe are not frequent nor large. The general growth is poplar, hickory, black walnut, buck eye, or the horſe cheſnut, ſycamore, locuſt, and the ſugar maple. The under growth, in many places, is cane fifteen or twenty feet high, ſo cloſe together as to exclude all other plants; where the cane does not abound, we find red bud, wild plum, ſpice wood, red and white mulberry, ginſeng, Virginia and Seneka ſnake root, angelica, ſweet aniſe, ginger, and wild hops. The glades are covered with clover, wild rye, buffalo graſs, and pea vine. On the hills, at the head of rivers, we find ſtately red cedars; many of theſe trees are four feet in diameter, and forty feet clear of limbs.

It would take a volume to deſcribe particularly the mountains of this territory, above half of which is covered with thoſe which are uninhabitable; ſome of theſe mountains, particularly Cumberland, or Great Laurel Ridge, are the moſt ſtupendous piles in the United States; they abound with ginſeng and ſtone coal. Clinch mountain is ſouth of theſe, in which Burk's Garden and Morris's Nob might be deſcribed as curioſities.

The Iron mountain, which conſtitutes the boundary between this diſtrict and North Carolina, extends from near the lead mines, on the Kanhawa, through the Cherokee county, to the ſouth of Chota, and terminates near the ſources of the Mobile. The caverns and caſcades in theſe mountains are innumerable.

ANIMALS.]

ANIMALS.] A few years ſince, this country abounded with large herds of wild cattle, improperly called buffaloes; but the improvident or ill-diſpoſed among the firſt ſettlers, have deſtroyed multitudes of them out of mere wantonneſs; they are ſtill to be found on ſome of the ſouth branches of Cumberland river. Elk, or mooſe, are ſeen in many places, chiefly among the mountains. The deer are become comparatively ſcarce, ſo that no perſon makes a buſineſs of hunting them for their ſkins only. Enough of bears and wolves yet remain. Beavers and otters are caught in plenty in the upper branches of Cumberland and Kentucky rivers.

They have pheaſants, partridges, or quails, and turkies in abundance through the year. During the winter their waters are covered with the ſwan, wild gooſe, brant, and duck. Cat-fiſh have been caught in thoſe rivers that weighed above 100 pounds, and perch that weighed above twenty pounds.

The mammoth, the king of the land animals, was formerly an inhabitant of this country, as appears from his bones, which have been dug up by labourers at Campbell's Salines, on North Holſtein, when ſinking ſalt pits; they were from three to ſeven feet below the ſurface of the earth.

SALINES, MINES, SPRINGS, &c.] Campbell's Salines, juſt mentioned, are the only ones that have yet been diſcovered on the upper branches of the Tenneſſee and on this ſide the wilderneſs, though great ſearch has been made for them. The tract which contains theſe ſalines is a great natural curioſity; it was diſcovered by Capt. Charles Campbell, about 1745, who was one of the firſt explorers of the weſtern country. In 1753, he procured a patent for it from the governor of Virginia. His ſon, the late General William Campbell, the ſame who behaved ſo gallantly in the American war, in the years 1780 and 1781, became owner of it on his death. But it was not till the time of his death, when ſalt was very ſcarce and dear, that ſalt water was diſcovered, and ſalt made by a poor man; ſince that time, under the direction of Colonel Arthur Campbell, it has been improved to a conſiderable extent, and many thouſands of inhabitants are ſupplied from it with ſalt of a ſuperior quality, and at a low price. The tract conſiſts of about 300 acres of flat marſh land, of as rich a ſoil as can be imagined: in this flat, pits are ſunk in order to obtain the ſalt water; the beſt is found from thirty to forty feet deep; after paſſing through the rich ſoil or mud, from ſix to ten feet, you come to a very brittle lime-ſtone rock, with cracks or chaſms, through which the ſalt water iſſues into the pits, whence it is drawn by buckets and put into the boilers, which are placed in furnaces adjoining the pits. The hills that ſurround this flat are covered with fine timber, and not far diſtant a coal mine has been diſcovered.

On Frank river, about thirty miles in a direct line from its mouth, a large, clear, medicinal ſpring has lately been diſcovered, which, on experiment, has been found to relieve various complaints of the human body. Its temperature rather exceeds blood heat.

On the ſame river, nearer its mouth, a valuable lead mine has lately been diſcovered.

COMMERCE.] This country furniſhes many valuable articles of export, ſuch as fine waggon and ſaddle horſes, beef, cattle, ginſeng, deer ſkins and furs, cotton, hemp, and flax, which may be tranſported by land; alſo iron, lumber, pork, and flour, which might be exported in great quantities, if the navigation of the Miſſiſſippi were opened; but there are few of the inhabitants who underſtand commerce, or are poſſeſſed of proper capitals; of courſe it is badly managed: the wicked practice of land jobbing engroſſes too much of the attention of the inhabitants. The degraded ſtate

of commerce has rendered neceſſary a general attention to home manufactures; and it is to be hoped that the eyes of the people will ſoon be opened to their true intereſt, and agriculture, commerce, and manufactures, each receive proper attention.

RELIGION.] The Preſbyterians are the prevailing denomination of Chriſtians in this diſtrict: they have a Preſbytery, called the Abingdon Preſbytery, eſtabliſhed by act of ſynod, which, in 1788, conſiſted of 23 large congregations, who were then ſupplied by only ſix miniſters. There are alſo ſome of the Baptiſt and Methodiſt denominations.

ACADEMY AND SOCIETY.] The inhabitants of this diſtrict have not been inattentive to the intereſts of ſcience. An academy and ſeveral grammar ſchools have been eſtabliſhed; and a ſociety, who ſtyle themſelves, "A Society for promoting Uſeful Knowledge." It is of modern date, but much good is expected from it. A taſte for literature is increaſing among them.

GOVERNMENT.] Similar to that eſtabliſhed by Congreſs in the territory of the United States, north-weſt of the Ohio. The governor is the executive (and, in his abſence, the ſecretary), and the governor and three judges the legiſlative power, in the diſtrict.

CHARACTER, MANNERS, AND DRESS.] There is nothing in the character of this people that diſtinguiſhes them from the ſettlers of new countries in general. Among the bulk of the inhabitants a great ſimplicity of manners prevails. Duplicity or the etiquette of cities and populous places is unknown among them. If a man deceives another, he is deemed and called a liar; and it frequently happens that "a bloody noſe" is the conſequence. Wreſtling, jumping, running foot races, and playing at ball, are the common diverſions. Dancing is coming into faſhion. Card playing is a rare amuſement. The hunting ſhirt is ſtill worn by the militia on duty, and by hunters in purſuit of game. At home, and at public aſſemblies, they dreſs like the Virginians.

DAMAGE BY THE WAR.] Great was the damage ſuſtained by the inhabitants of this diſtrict during the war, occaſioned by the incurſions of the Indians; and it is much to the honour of this patriotic people, that when they were offered protection by the Britiſh, in the early ſtage of the war, they nobly refuſed it.

PRINCIPAL TOWNS.] Naſhville, the ſhire town of Davidſon county, is the largeſt town in the territory. The courts are held here; and it has two houſes for public worſhip, and a handſomely endowed academy, eſtabliſhed in 1786.

Abingdon is the county town of Waſhington county: it contained, in 1788, about 20 houſes, and was rapidly increaſing: it is about 260 miles from Richmond in Virginia, in a direct line, and 310 as the road runs, bearing a little to the ſouth of weſt, latitude 36° 30'.

MILITIA.] In 1788, the militia of this diſtrict amounted to between 7 and 8000 effective men, who were principally armed with rifles. It is ſuppoſed that their number is increaſed nearly one half ſince that period.

REVENUE.] The public revenue amounts to about 5 or 6000 pounds, raiſed chiefly by a tax on ſlaves, lands, and horſes.

ROADS.] The following are the diſtances on the new road from Naſhville, in Davidſon county, to Fort Campbell, near the junction of Holſtein river with the Tenneſſee.

From

	Miles.		Miles.
From Naſhville to Stony river - -	9	From King's Spring -	16
Big Spring -	6	Grovet's Creek -	7
Cedar Lick - -	4	The foot of Cumberland Mountain -	2
Little Spring -	6	Through the Mountain to Emmery's river, a branch of the Peleſon	11
Barton's Creek -	4	To the Pappa Ford of the Peleſon or Clinch river - -	12
Spring Creek - -	5	To Campbell's ſtation, near Holſtein -	10
Martin's Spring -	5	To the Great Iſland -	100
Blair's Spring -	5	To Abingdon in Waſhington county -	35
Buck Spring -	12	To Richmond in Virginia	310
Fountaines - -	8	Total	635
Smith's Creek -	6		
Coney River -	11		
Mine Lick - -	9		
Falling Creek -	9		
War Path - -	7		
Bear Creek - -	18		
Camp Creek -	8		

By this new road, a pleaſant paſſage may be had to the weſtern country with carriages, as there will be only the Cumberland mountain to paſs, and that is eaſy of aſcent; and beyond it, the road is generally level and firm, abounding with fine ſprings of water.

INDIANS.] The Indian tribes, within and in the vicinity of this diſtrict, are the Cherokees and Chicaſaws. The Cherokees have been a warlike and numerous nation; but by continual wars, in which it has been their deſtiny to be engaged with the northern Indian tribes, they were reduced, at the commencement of the laſt war, to about 2000 fighting men; ſince which they have been reduced more than one-half, and have become weak and puſillanimous.

The Chicaſaws, of all the Indian tribes within the limits of the United States, merit the moſt from the Americans, having at all times maintained a brotherly attachment to them: they glory in ſaying, that they never ſhed the blood of an Anglo American. There is ſo great an affinity between the Chicaſaw and Choctaw languages, that the common people can converſe together, each ſpeaking in his own dialect. They are a perſonable people, and have an openneſs in their countenances and behaviour, uncommon among ſavages. Theſe nations ſay, they are the remnant of a great nation that once lived far to the weſt, which was deſtroyed by the Spaniards, for whom they ſtill retain an hereditary hatred. Would it not be the policy of Congreſs to treat with theſe nations? and might not their friendſhip be greatly ſerviceable to the Union?

HISTORY.] The eaſtern parts of this diſtrict were explored by Colonels Wood, Patton, Buchanan, Captain Charles Campbell, and Dr. T. Walker, (each of whom were concerned in large grants of land from the government) as early as between the years of 1740 and 1750. In 1754, at the commencement of the French war, not more than 50 families had ſettled here, who were either deſtroyed or driven off by the Indians before the cloſe of the following year. It remained uninhabited till 1765, when the ſettlement of it re-commenced; and in 1773, (ſuch was the vaſt acceſſion of emigrants)

the country as far weſt as the Long Iſland of Holſtein, an extent of more than 120 miles in length from eaſt to weſt, was well peopled.

In 1774, a war broke out with the northern Indians over the Ohio, which iſſued in their ſuing for peace, which was granted them on eaſy terms.

The year 1776 was ſignalized by a formidable invaſion of the Cherokees, contrived by the Britiſh ſuperintendant, Mr. Steuart. Their intention was to depopulate the country as far as the Kanhawa, becauſe this brave people had rejected, with a noble firmneſs and indignation, the propoſals of Henry Steuart and Alexander Cameron for joining the Britiſh ſtandard, and were almoſt unanimous in their reſolution to ſupport the meaſures of Congreſs. This invaſion iſſued in a total defeat of the Indians.

In 1780, the tories of the weſtern parts of North Carolina and Virginia, emboldened by the reduction of Charleſtown by the Britiſh, embodied in armed parties, and proceeded towards the lead mines on the Kanhawa, to take poſſeſſion of ſome lead ſtores at that place, but were defeated in their attempt by the vigilance of Col. A. Campbell and Col. Chockett.

Various other movements took place in the courſe of this year, but the moſt intereſting and brilliant was the battle of King's Mountain, which was fought and won by about 900 Mountaineers, (as the veteran ſons of this diſtrict were called) commanded by the brave General William Campbell, againſt a party of the Britiſh under the command of Colonel Ferguſon. Upwards of 1100 of the enemy were either killed, wounded, or taken; among the former was Col. Ferguſon, an officer of diſtinguiſhed merit.* In arouſing the inhabitants, iſſuing orders, collecting the forces, and in arranging and animating the men, at the place of rendezvous, previous to this ſucceſsful expedition, much was done by the activity and deciſion of Col. Arthur Campbell, the ſenior officer of the diſtrict, to whom much praiſe is due.

Soon after this, to defeat a meditated invaſion of the Cherokee Indians, which was diſcovered by Nancy Ward, an Indian woman, called, from this circumſtance, the weſtern *Pocahonta*, Col. A. Campbell, with 700 mountaineers, well mounted, penetrated far into the Cherokee country; introduced the new and ſucceſsful mode of fighting Indians on horſeback; accompliſhed his deſigns, and returned in Jan. 1781.

In the celebrated battle at Guildford, March 15, 1781, the mountaineers, under Gen. W. Campbell, who on that day commanded with great applauſe the left wing of the army, behaved with their uſual gallantry. This nearly cloſed the active part which the Mountain men took in the American war.

In 1782, the legiſlature of North Carolina appointed commiſſioners to explore the weſtern part of the State, (by which is meant as well the lands included in Davidſon county, as thoſe between the ſouth boundary of this county, and thoſe between the rivers Miſſiſſippi and Tenneſſee) and report to the ſucceeding legiſlature, which part was beſt for the payment of the bounty promiſed to the officers and ſoldiers of the continental line of that State; and they accordingly did explore the before-deſcribed tract of country, and reported to the legiſlature in the ſpring of the year 1783. Although this country was not eſtabliſhed by law before the laſt-mentioned period, yet a few families had ſettled in the year 1780, principally under the guidance of Col. James Robertſon, on Cumberland river, and called the place Naſhville, in honour of Brigadier-General Francis Naſh, who fell at Germantown, in the year 1777; but he had but few followers until the year 1783, after the peace had taken place, and after an act

* See Ramſay's Revol. South Carolina, vol. II. page 181.

had

had paſſed, directing the military or bounty warrants of the officers and ſoldiers to be located in this county. Theſe circumſtances induced many officers and ſoldiers to repair immediately thither, to ſecure and ſettle their lands; and ſuch as did not chuſe to go, ſold their warrants to citizens who did go: in conſequence of this, many people from almoſt every State in the Union became purchaſers of theſe military warrants, and are ſince become reſidents of this county; and many valuable and opulent families have removed to it from the Natches. Colonel Robertſon, when he ſettled at Naſhville, was upwards of 200 miles diſtant (to the weſtward) from any other ſettlement in his own State, and was equally diſtant from the then ſettled parts of Kentucky. Hence it will readily be ſuppoſed, that himſelf and party were in danger every hour of being cut off by the Indians, againſt whom his principal ſecurity was, that he was as far diſtant from them as from the white people; and ſlender as this ſecurity may appear, his party never ſuſtained any damage from the Indians, but what was done by parties of hunters, who happened to find out his ſettlements. The face of this country is in general level, and the ſoil very rich, equal to any other part of America, and produces in abundance every thing that can be expected from ſo temperate a climate and ſo rich a ſoil. It is common for the planter to gather from his fields, upon an average, ſixty buſhels of Indian corn per acre. This county is well watered by the rivers Tenneſſee and Cumberland, and their branches. Both of theſe rivers empty into the Ohio ſhortly after they paſs the north boundary of the State. As the waters of the Cumberland from Naſhville, and of the Tenneſſee from the Muſcle ſhoals to the Ohio, are navigable to the Ohio and Miſſiſſippi, the people of courſe, who live in this county or the adjacent country, have the ſame advantages of water conveyance for trade, as thoſe who live on the Ohio or Miſſiſſippi, to New Orleans or elſewhere.

Beſides, there is another probable avenue through which trade will be carried on with this county and the adjacent country, which is from Mobile, up the waters of the Mobile river as far as it is navigable, thence by a land carriage of about 50 miles (at moſt) to Ocochappo creek, which empties into the Tenneſſee at the lower end of the Muſcle ſhoals. The mouth of this creek is the center of a piece of ground, the diameter of which is five miles, ceded by the ſouthern Indians at the treaty of Hopwell, on Keeowee, to the United States, for the eſtabliſhment of trading poſts.

In 1785, in conformity to the reſolves of Congreſs of April 23, 1784, the inhabitants of this diſtrict eſſayed to form themſelves into a body politic, by the name of the "State of Frankland;" but, differing among themſelves as to the form of government, and about other matters, in the iſſue of which ſome blood was ſhed; and being oppoſed by ſome leading characters in the eaſtern parts, the ſcheme was given up, and the inhabitants remained in general peaceable until 1790, when Congreſs eſtabliſhed their preſent government. Since this period, ſome late incurſions of the Indians excepted, the inhabitants have been peaceable and proſperous.

SOUTH

SOUTH CAROLINA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.			Square Miles.
Length	200	between	4° and 9° W. Lon.	20,000
Breadth	125		32° and 35° W. Lat.	

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED north, by North Carolina, and the Tenneſſee government; eaſt, by the Atlantic Ocean; ſouth, and ſouth-weſt, by Savannah river, and a branch of its head waters, called Tugulo river, which divides this State from Georgia.*

CIVIL DIVISIONS AND POPULATION.] The proprietors who firſt ſent ſettlers to Carolina, divided it into counties and pariſhes. The counties are generally named after the proprietors. No county courts, however, were eſtabliſhed, and this diviſion, though for a long time kept up in the province, became in a great meaſure obſolete, previous to the revolution. Since the revolution, county courts have been eſtabliſhed, where a majority of the inhabitants have petitioned for them, and the State is now divided into diſtricts and counties; and the counties are ſubdivided, in the lower country, into pariſhes; and in the upper country, into ſmaller or voting diſtricts.

There are ſeven diſtricts, in which are 36 counties, as follows:

Diſtricts.	Counties.
BEAUFORT diſtrict, on the ſea coaſt, between Combahee & Savannah rivers. Chief town BEAUFORT, 18,753 inhabitants.	Hilton, Lincoln, Granville, Shrewſbury.
ORANGEBURGH diſtrict weſt of Beaufort diſtrict. Chief town ORANGEBURGH, 18,513 inhabitants.	Lewiſburgh, Orange, Lexington, Winton.
GEORGETOWN diſtrict, between Santee river and North Carolina. Chief town GEORGETOWN, 22,122 inhabitants.	Winyah, Williamſburgh, Kingſton, Liberty.
CHARLESTOWN diſtrict, between Santee and Combahee rivers. Ch. town CHARLESTOWN, 76,985 inhabitants.	Charleſtown, Waſhington, Marion, Berkley, Colleton, Bartholomew.
CAMDEN diſtrict, weſt of Georgetown diſtrict. Chief town CAMDEN, 38,065 inhabitants.	Clarendon, Richland, Fairfield, Claremont, Lancaſter, York, Cheſter.
NINETY-SIX diſtrict, comprehends all other parts of the State, not included in the other diſtrict. Chief town CAMBRIDGE, 73,729 inhabitants.	Abbeville, Edgefield, Newbury, Union, Laurens, Spartanburgh, Greenville, Pendleton.

* See page 548, note.

CHERAWS

Cheraws diſtrict, weſt of Georgetown diſtrict. Chief town ———, 10,706 inhabitants.	Marlborough, Cheſterfield, Darlington.

Total number of inhabitants in 1791, 249,073, of whom 107,094 were ſlaves.

The committee, appointed by act of Aſſembly to divide the diſtricts into counties, were directed to lay them as nearly 40 miles ſquare as was practicable, due regard being paid to ſituations, natural boundaries, &c.

As the lower country was originally ſettled by people from Europe, under the proprietary government and influence, all the then counties were divided into pariſhes: and even now, although the old counties are done away, the boundaries altered, and new ones eſtabliſhed, the diviſion of pariſhes ſubſiſts in the three lower diſtricts, the people chuſe their ſenators and repreſentatives by pariſhes, as formerly. But in the middle and upper diſtricts, which were ſettled by people of various nations from Europe, but principally by northern emigrants, pariſhes are hardly known, except perhaps in Orangeburgh diſtrict. In theſe diſtricts the people vote in ſmall diviſions, as convenience dictates.

Climate.] The climate is different in different parts of the State: along the ſea coaſt, bilious diſeaſes, and fevers of various kinds, are prevalent between July and October. The probability of dying is much greater between the 20th of June and the 20th of October, than in the other eight months in the year.

One cauſe of theſe diſeaſes is, a low marſhy country, which is overflowed for the ſake of cultivating rice. The exhalations from theſe ſtagnated waters, from the rivers, and from the neighbouring ocean, and the profuſe perſpiration of vegetables of all kinds, which cover the ground, fill the air with moiſture: this moiſture falls in frequent rains and copious dews. From actual obſervation it has been found that the average annual fall of rain for ten years was 42 inches; without regarding the moiſture that fell in fogs and dews. The great heat of the day relaxes the body, and the agreeable coolneſs of the evening invites to an expoſure to theſe heavy dews.

The diſagreeable effects of this climate, experience has proved, might in a great meaſure be avoided by thoſe inhabitants, whoſe circumſtances will admit of their removal from the neighbourhood of the rice ſwamps to healthier ſituations, during the months of July, Auguſt, September, and October; and in the worſt ſituations, by temperance and care. Violent exerciſe on horſeback, chiefly, expoſure to the meridian rays of the ſun, ſudden ſhowers of rain, and the night air, are too frequently the cauſes of fevers and other diſorders. Would the ſportſmen deny themſelves, during the fall months, their favourite amuſements of hunting and fiſhing, or confine themſelves to a very few hours, in the morning or evening; would the induſtrious planter viſit his fields only at the ſame hours; or would the poorer claſs of people pay due attention to their manner of living, and obſerve the precautions recommended to them by men of knowledge and experience, much ſickneſs and many diſtreſſing events might be prevented. The upper country, ſituated in the medium between extreme heat and cold, is as healthful as any part of the United States.

Rivers.] This State is watered by four large navigable rivers, beſides a great number of ſmaller ones, which are paſſable in boats. The river Savannah waſhes it in its whole length from ſouth-eaſt to north-weſt. The Ediſto riſes in two branches from a remark-

remarkable ridge in the interior part of the State. Theſe branches unite below Orangeburgh, which ſtands on the North Fork, and form Ediſto river, which, having paſſed Jackſonſburgh, leaving it on the ſouth, branches and embraces Ediſto iſland.

Santee is the largeſt and longeſt river in this State: it empties into the ocean by two mouths, a little ſouth of Georgetown. About 120 miles in a direct line from its mouth, it branches into the Congaree and Wateree; the latter or northern branch paſſes the Catabaw nation of Indians, and bears the name of the Catabaw river from this ſettlement to its ſource. The Congaree branches into Saluda and Broad rivers. Broad river again branches into Enoree, Tyger, and Pacolet rivers, on the latter of which are the celebrated Pacolet ſprings.

Pedee river riſes in North Carolina, where it is called Yadkin river: in this State, however, it takes the name of Pedee; and, receiving the waters of Lynche's creek, Little Pedee, and Black river, it joins the Wakkamaw river, near Georgetown. Theſe united ſtreams, with the acceſſion of a ſmall creek, on which Georgetown ſtands, form Winyaw bay, which, about 12 miles below, communicates with the ocean. All the forementioned rivers, except Ediſto, riſes from various ſources in that ridge of mountains which divides the waters which flow into the Atlantic ocean, from thoſe which fall into the Miſſiſſippi.

The rivers of a ſecondary ſize, as you paſs from N. to S. are Wakkamaw, Black river, Cooper, Aſhepoo, and Combahee. Theſe rivers afford, to the proprietors of their banks, a conſiderable quantity of tide ſwamp or rice land, flowable from the rivers, except in extraordinary droughts.

In the third claſs are comprehended thoſe rivers which extend but a ſhort diſtance from the ocean, and ſerve, by branching into numberleſs creeks, as drains to take off the quantity of rain water, which comes down from the large inland ſwamps; or are merely arms of the ſea: of this kind, are Aſhley, Stono, Cooſaw, Broad, Colleton, May, New, and Right's rivers. The tide, in no part of the State, flows more than 25 miles from the ſea.

CANAL.] A company has been incorporated for the purpoſe of connecting Cooper and Santee rivers by a canal of 21 miles in length. The ſum ſuppoſed to be neceſſary to complete this extenſive work is 55,620l. ſterling. Twenty-five per cent. are allowed by the legiſlature in tolls for all monies advanced by ſtockholders. The advantage of a canal at this place, to one who inſpects a map of the Carolinas, muſt appear to be great, both to the public and to the proprietors.

MOUNTAINS.] Except the high hills of Santee, the Ridge, and ſome few other hills, this country is like one extenſive plain, till you reach the Tryon and Hogback mountains, 220 miles north-weſt of Charleſtown. The elevation of theſe mountains above their baſe is 3840 feet, and above the ſea coaſt 4640. There is exhibited from the top of theſe mountains an extenſive view of this State, North Carolina, and Georgia: and as no object intervenes to obſtruct the view, a man with *teleſcopic* eyes might diſcern veſſels at ſea. The mountains weſt and north-weſt riſe much higher than theſe, and form a ridge, which divides the waters of Tenneſſee and Santee rivers.

HARBOURS.] The only harbours of note are thoſe of Charleſtown, Port Royal, and Georgetown. Charleſtown harbour is ſpacious, convenient, and ſafe: it is formed by the junction of Aſhley and Cooper rivers: its entrance is guarded by Fort Johnſon. Twelve miles from the city is a bar, over which are four channels; one, by the name of Ship Channel, has 18 feet water; another 16½; the other two are for ſmaller veſſels. The tides riſe from five to eight feet. Port Royal has an excellent harbour, of ſufficient extent to contain the largeſt fleet in the world.

The bar at the entrance of Winyaw bay, which leads to Georgetown, does not admit of veſſels drawing more than 11 feet water; and is, in many reſpects, a very dangerous place. This circumſtance has proved injurious to the growth of Georgetown, which is otherwiſe exceedingly well ſituated for all the purpoſes of an extenſive trade.

ISLANDS.] The ſea coaſt is bordered with a chain of fine ſea iſlands, around which the ſea flows, opening an excellent inland navigation, for the conveyance of produce to market.

North of Charleſtown harbour lie Bull's, Dewee's, and Sullivan's iſlands, which form the north part of the harbour. James iſland lies on the other ſide of the harbour, oppoſite Charleſtown, containing about fifty families. Further S. W. is John's iſland, larger than James; Stono river, which forms a convenient and ſafe harbour, divides theſe iſlands. Contiguous to John's iſland, and connected with it, by a bridge, is Wadmelaw; eaſt of which are the ſmall iſles of Keyway and Simmon. Between theſe and Ediſto iſland is N. Ediſto inlet, which alſo affords a good harbour for veſſels of eaſy draft of water. South of Ediſto iſland is S. Ediſto inlet, through which enter, from the northward, all the veſſels bound to Beaufort, Aſheepoo, Combahee and Cooſaw.

On the S. W. ſide of St. Helena iſland lies a cluſter of iſlands, one of the largeſt of which is Port Royal. Adjacent to Port Royal lie St. Helena, Ladies iſland, Paris iſland, and the Hunting iſlands, five or ſix in number, bordering on the ocean, ſo called from the number of deer and other wild game found upon them. All theſe iſlands, and ſome others of leſs note, belong to St. Helena pariſh.

Croſſing Broad river, you come to Hilton Head, the moſt ſouthern ſea iſland in Carolina. Weſt and ſouth-weſt of Hilton Head, lie Pinckney's, Bulls, Dawfuſkies, and ſome ſmaller iſlands, between which and Hilton Head, are Calibogie river and ſound, which form the outlet of May and New rivers.

The ſoil on theſe iſlands is generally better adapted to the culture of indigo than the main, and leſs ſuited to rice: cotton grows very well upon them. The natural growth is the live oak, which is ſo excellent for ſhip timber, and the palmetto or cabbage tree, the utility of which, in the conſtruction of forts, was experienced during the late war.

CHIEF TOWNS.] CHARLESTOWN is the only conſiderable town in South Carolina: it is ſituated on the tongue of land which is formed by the confluence of Aſhley and Cooper rivers, which are large and navigable. Theſe rivers mingle their waters immediately below the town, and form a ſpacious and convenient harbour, which communicates with the ocean juſt below Sullivan's iſland, which it leaves on the north, ſeven miles ſouth-eaſt of the town. In theſe rivers the tide riſes, in common about 6½ feet.* The continued agitation which this occaſions in the waters which almoſt ſurround Charleſtown; the refreſhing ſea breezes which are regularly felt, and the ſmoke riſing from ſo many chimneys, render Charleſtown more healthy than any part of the low country in the ſouthern ſtates. On this account it is the reſort of great numbers of gentlemen, invalids from the Weſt India iſlands, and of the rich planters from the country, who come here to ſpend the ſickly months, as they are called, in queſt of health and of the ſocial enjoyments which the city affords: and in no part of America are the ſocial bleſſings enjoyed more rationally and liberally than in Charleſtown. Unaffected hoſpitality, affability, eaſe in manners and addreſs, and a diſpoſition to make

* It is worthy of remark, that the tide uniformly riſes conſiderably higher in the night than in the day; often from ten to twelve inches. The fact is certain; the cauſe is unknown.

their gueſts welcome, eaſy, and pleaſed with themſelves, are characteriſtics of the reſpectable people in Charleſtown.

The land on which the town is built is flat and low, and the water brackiſh and unwholeſome. The ſtreets from eaſt to weſt extend from river to river, and, running in a ſtraight line, not only open beautiful proſpects each way, but afford excellent opportunities, by means of ſubterranean drains, for removing all nuiſances, and keeping the city clean and healthy. Theſe ſtreets are interſected by others, nearly at right angles, and throw the town into a number of ſquares, with dwelling houſes in front, and office houſes and little gardens behind. Some of the ſtreets are conveniently wide, but moſt of them are much too narrow, eſpecially for ſo populous a city, in ſo warm a climate. Beſides their being a nurſery for various diſeaſes from their confined ſituation, they have been found extremely inconvenient in caſe of fires, the deſtructive effects of which have been frequently felt in this city. The houſes, which have been lately built, are brick, with tiled roofs. Some of the buildings in Charleſtown are elegant, and moſt of them are neat, airy, and well furniſhed. The public buildings are, an exchange, ſtate houſe, lately rebuilt, armoury, poor houſe, two large churches for Epiſcopalians, two for Congregationaliſts or Independents, one for Scotch Preſbyterians, one for Baptiſts, one for German Lutherans, two for the Methodiſts, (a large houſe for worſhip, being lately finiſhed by them) one for French Proteſtants, beſides a meeting houſe for Quakers, a Roman Catholic chapel, and a Jewiſh ſynagogue.

But little attention is paid to the public markets. A great proportion of the moſt wealthy inhabitants have plantations, from which they receive ſupplies of almoſt every article of living. The country abounds with poultry and wild ducks: their beef, mutton, and veal, are not of the beſt kind. Few fiſh are brought to market.

In 1787, it was computed that there was 1600 houſes in this city, and 9600 white inhabitants, and 5400 negroes; and what evinces the healthineſs of the place, upwards of 200 of the white inhabitants were above 60 years of age. In 1791, there were 16,359 inhabitants, of whom 7684 were ſlaves.

Charleſtown was incorporated in 1783, and divided into 13 wards, which chuſe as many wardens, from among whom the citizens elect an intendant of the city. The intendant and wardens form the city council, who have power to make and enforce bye-laws for the regulation of the city.

Beaufort, on Port Royal iſland, is a pleaſant little town, of about 50 or 60 houſes, and 200 inhabitants, who are diſtinguiſhed for their hoſpitality and politeneſs. The courts which were formerly held here, are now held at Cooſawhatchie.

Georgetown, the ſeat of juſtice in Georgetown diſtrict, ſtands on a ſpot of land near the junction of a number of rivers, which, when united in one broad ſtream, by the name of Winyaw, fall into the ocean 12 miles below the town.

Columbia, which has lately been made the ſeat of government by the legiſlature, ſtands juſt below the junction of Saluda and Broad rivers, on the Congaree. The public offices have, however, in ſome inſtances been divided, for the accommodation of the inhabitants of the lower counties, and a branch of each retained in Charleſtown.

Camden, on the Wateree, N. W. of Santee hills, 130 miles weſt of north from Charleſtown, is regularly built, upon a good plan; but a ſmall part of it is yet executed.

Purysburgh is a hilly village, about 20 miles above Savannah, on the north bank of the river of the ſame name. It was early ſettled by foreigners, with a view to the culture of ſilk, which for a while they attended to with ſpirit. The mulberry trees are yet ſtanding, and ſome attention is ſtill paid to the making of ſilk: but the profits of the

the rice and indigo ſoon diverted the original planters from almoſt every other purſuit. Beſides theſe, are Jackſonborough, Orangeburgh, Winnſborough, and Cambridge, which are all inconſiderable villages of from 30 to 60 dwelling houſes.

General Face of the Country.] The whole State, to the diſtance of 80 miles from the ſea, is level, and almoſt without a ſtone. In this diſtance, by a gradual aſcent from the ſea coaſt, the land riſes about 190 feet. Here, if you proceed in a W.N.W. courſe from Charleſtown, commences a curiouſly uneven country. The traveller is conſtantly aſcending or deſcending little ſand hills, which nature ſeems to have diſunited in a frolic. If a pretty high ſea were ſuddenly arreſted, and transformed into ſand hills, in the very form the waves exiſted at the moment of transformation, it would preſent the eye with juſt ſuch a view as is here to be ſeen. Some little herbage, and a few ſmall pines grow even on this ſoil. The inhabitants are few, and have but a ſcanty ſubſiſtence on corn and ſweet potatoes, which grow here tolerably well. This curious country continues for ſixty miles, till you arrive at a place called *The Ridge*, 140 miles from Charleſtown. This ridge is a remarkable tract of high ground, as you approach it from the ſea, but level as you advance north-weſt from its ſummit. It is a fine high, healthy belt of land, well watered, and of a good ſoil, and extends from the Savannah to Broad river, in about 6° 30′ weſt longitude from Philadelphia. Beyond this ridge commences a country exactly reſembling the northern States. Here hills and dales, with all their verdure and variegated beauty, preſent themſelves to the eye. Wheat fields, which are rare in the low country, begin to grow common. Here Heaven has beſtowed its bleſſing with a moſt bounteous hand. The air is much more temperate and healthful than nearer to the ſea. The hills are covered with valuable woods; the vallies watered with beautiful rivers, and the fertility of the ſoil is equal to every vegetable production. This, by way of diſtinction, is called the Upper Country, where are different modes and different articles of cultivation; where the manners of the people, and even their language, have a different tone. The land ſtill riſes by a gradual aſcent; each ſucceeding hill overlooks that which immediately precedes it, till, having advanced 220 miles in a north-weſt direction from Charleſtown, the elevation of the land above the ſea coaſt is found by menſuration to be 800 feet. Here commences a mountainous country, which continues riſing to the weſtern terminating point of this State.

Soil and Productions.] The ſoil may be divided into four kinds; firſt, the pine barren, which is valuable only for its timber. Interſperſed among the pine barren are tracts of land free of timber, and every kind of growth but that of graſs. Theſe tracts are called ſavannahs, conſtituting a ſecond kind of ſoil, good for grazing. The third kind is that of the ſwamps and low grounds on the rivers, which is a mixture of black loam and fat clay, producing naturally canes in great plenty, cypreſs, bays, loblolly pines, &c. In theſe ſwamps rice is cultivated, which conſtitutes the ſtaple commodity of the State. The high lands, commonly known by the name of oak and hiccory lands, conſtitute the fourth kind of ſoil. The natural growth is oak, hiccory, walnut, pine, and locuſt. On theſe lands, in the low country, are cultivated Indian corn principally; and in the back country, beſides theſe, they raiſe tobacco in large quantities, wheat, rye, barley, oats, hemp, flax, cotton, and ſilk.*

There is little fruit in this State, eſpecially in the lower parts of it. They have oranges, which are chiefly ſour, and figs in plenty, a few limes and lemons, pomegra-

* See the nature of the ſoil more particularly deſcribed under this head in the deſcription of Georgia.

nates, pears, and peaches; apples are ſcarce, and are imported from the northern States. Melons, (eſpecially the water melon) are raiſed here in great perfection.

The river ſwamps, in which rice can be cultivated with any tolerable degree of ſafety and ſucceſs, do not extend higher up the rivers than the head of the tides; and in eſtimating the value of this ſpecies of rice land, the height which the tide riſes is taken into conſideration, thoſe lying where it riſes to a proper pitch for overflowing the ſwamps being the moſt valuable. The beſt inland ſwamps, which conſtitute a ſecond ſpecies of rice land, are ſuch as are furniſhed with reſerves of water. Theſe reſerves are formed by means of large banks thrown up at the upper parts of the ſwamps, whence it is conveyed, when needed, to the fields of rice.

At the diſtance of about 110 miles from the ſea, the river ſwamps terminate, and the high lands extend quite to the rivers, and form banks, in ſome places, ſeveral hundred feet high from the ſurface of the water, and afford many extenſive and delightful views. Theſe high banks are interwoven with layers of leaves and different coloured earth, and abound with quarries of free-ſtone, pebbles, flint, chryſtals, iron ore in abundance, ſilver, lead, ſulphur, and coarſe diamonds.

The ſwamps above the head of the tide are occaſionally planted with corn, cotton, and indigo. The ſoil is very rich, yielding from forty to fifty buſhels of corn an acre.

It is curious to obſerve the gradations from the ſea coaſt to the upper country, with reſpect to the produce, the mode of cultivation, and the cultivators. On the iſlands upon the ſea coaſt, and for forty or fifty miles back (and on the rivers much farther) the cultivators are all ſlaves. No white man, to ſpeak generally, ever thinks of ſettling a farm and improving it for himſelf without negroes. If he has no negroes, he hires himſelf as overſeer to ſome rich planter, who has more than he can or will attend to, till he can purchaſe for himſelf. The articles cultivated are corn and potatoes, which, with the ſmall rice, are food for the negroes; rice, indigo, and cotton, for exportation. The culture of this laſt article is capable of being increaſed equal to almoſt any demand. The ſoil was cultivated, till lately, almoſt wholly by manual labour. The plough, till ſince the peace, was ſcarcely uſed. Now, the plough and harrow and other improvements are introduced into the rice ſwamps with great ſucceſs, and will no doubt become general. In the middle ſettlements, negroes are not ſo numerous. The maſter attends perſonally to his own buſineſs. The land is not properly ſituated for rice. It produces moderately good indigo weed, and ſome tobacco is raiſed for exportation. The farmer is contented to raiſe corn, potatoes, oats, rye, poultry, and a little wheat. In the upper country, there are but few negroes; generally ſpeaking, the farmers have none, and depend, like the inhabitants of the northern States, upon the labour of themſelves and families for ſubſiſtence; the plough is uſed almoſt wholly. Indian corn in great quantities, wheat, rye, potatoes, &c. are raiſed for food, and much tobacco and ſome wheat, cotton and indigo for exportation.

Mode of cultivating Rice.] Rice ground is prepared only by effectually ſecuring it from the water, except ſome higher parts of it, which are ſometimes dug up with a hoe, or mellowed by a plough or harrow. When the rice is young, the overflowing of the water does not prevent its growth. Thoſe who have water in reſerve, commonly let it in upon their rice, after firſt going through with the hoe, while it is young, though it is deemed beſt to keep out the graſs without this aid, by the hoe only. The water is commonly kept on the rice eight or ten days after hoeing. When the ear is formed, the water is continued on till it is ripe. It is hoed three or four times. When the graſs is very thick, a negroe cannot hoe more than one ſixteenth of an

an acre in a day. From three pecks to a buſhel is ſown an acre. It produces from fifty to eighty buſhels of rough rice an acre; 120 buſhels of rough rice have been produced on one acre; twenty buſhels of which make about 500 pounds, or eight and a quarter buſhels clean rice for market. After it is threſhed, it is winnowed, and then ground in a mill, conſtructed of two blocks in a ſimple manner; then winnowed by a fan conſtructed for that purpoſe, then beat in a mortar by hand, or now generally by horſe or water machines, then ſifted, to ſeparate the whole rice from that which is broken and the flour. The whole rice is then barrelled in caſks of about 500 pounds, or eight and a quarter buſhels. The ſmall rice ſerves for proviſions, and the flour for provender, the chaff for manure, and the ſtraw for fodder. The blade is green and freſh while the ear is ripe. The price is from 9s. 4d. to 10s. 6d. a hundred; dollars 4s. 8d.

Manufactures.] In the middle, and eſpecially in the upper country, the people are obliged to manufacture their own cotton and woollen cloths, and moſt of their huſbandry tools; but in the lower country, the inhabitants, for theſe articles, depend almoſt entirely on their merchants. Late accounts from the interior parts of this State inform, that the inhabitants manufacture, entirely in the family way, as much as they have occaſion for; that cotton, hemp, and flax are plenty; that they have a conſiderable ſtock of good ſheep; that great exertions are made, and much done in the houſehold way; that they have long been in the habit of doing ſomething in family manufactures, but within a few years paſt great improvements have been made. The women do the weaving and leave the men to attend to agriculture.

This State furniſhes all the materials, and of the beſt kind, for ſhip building. The live oak, and the pitch and yellow pines, are of a ſuperior quality. Ships might be built here with more eaſe, and to much greater advantage, than in the middle and eaſtern States. A want of ſeamen is one reaſon why this buſineſs is not more generally attended to.

So much attention is now paid to the manufacture of indigo in this State, that it bids fair to rival that of the French. It is to be regretted, that it is ſtill the practice of the merchants concerned in the Carolina trade to ſell, at foreign markets, the Carolina indigo of the firſt quality, as French.

Constitution.] The legiſlative authority is veſted in a General Aſſembly, conſiſting of a Senate and Houſe of Repreſentatives. There are 124 repreſentatives, and 35 ſenators appointed among the ſeveral diſtricts. The repreſentatives are choſen for two years, muſt be free white men, twenty-one years old, and have been inhabitants of the State three years. If reſident in the diſtrict, they muſt have a freehold of 500 acres of land, and ten negroes, or real eſtate worth 150l. ſterling, clear of debt; if non-reſident, muſt have a freehold in the diſtrict worth 500l. ſterling clear of debt. The ſenators are choſen for four years, and divided into two claſſes, one claſs being choſen every ſecond year. They muſt be free white men, thirty years old, and have been inhabitants five years. If reſident in the diſtrict, they muſt have a freehold worth 300l. ſterling, clear of debt; if non-reſident, a freehold worth 1000l. ſterling, clear of debt. Every free white man, twenty-one years old, having been an inhabitant of the State two years, and been a freeholder of fifty acres of land, or a town lot, ſix months, or having been reſident in the diſtrict ſix months, and paid a tax of 3s. ſterling, has a right to vote for members of the legiſlature. The General Aſſembly is choſen on the ſecond Monday of October, and meets on the fourth Monday in November annually. Each houſe chooſes its own officers, judges of the qualifications of its members, and has a negative on the other. A majority of each make a quorum from day to day, and compel

compel the attendance of members. They are protected, in their perſons and eſtates, during the ſeſſions, and ten days before and after; except in caſes of treaſon, felony, and breach of the peace. They are paid out of the public treaſury, from which no money is drawn but by the legiſlative authority. Revenue bills originate in the lower houſe, but may be altered or rejected by the ſenate. Army and navy contractors, and all officers, excepting officers in the militia, juſtices of the peace, and juſtices of the county courts which have no ſalaries, are excluded from the General Aſſembly. The clergy are excluded from civil offices. The executive authority is veſted in a governor, choſen for two years, by both houſes of aſſembly jointly; but he cannot be re-elected till after four years. He muſt be thirty years old, have been an inhabitant of the State ten years, and have an eſtate in it worth 1500l. ſterling, clear of debt. He can hold no other office, except in the militia. A lieutenant-governor is choſen in the ſame manner, for the ſame time, and poſſeſſing the ſame qualifications; and holds the office of governor in caſe of vacancy. The governor is commander in chief of the military force; has power to remit fines and forfeitures, and grant reprieves and pardons, except in caſes of impeachment; to require information of executive officers; to convene the General Aſſembly on extraordinary occaſions, and to adjourn them to any time not beyond the fourth Monday in November next enſuing, in caſe they cannot agree on the time themſelves. He muſt inform the General Aſſembly of the condition of the State; recommend ſuch meaſures as he ſhall judge expedient; and take care that the laws are faithfully executed in mercy. The legiſlature has power to veſt the judicial authority in ſuch courts as it ſhall think proper. The judges hold their commiſſion during good behaviour. Thoſe of the ſuperior courts are elected by joint ballot of both houſes of aſſembly; have a ſtated ſalary, and can hold no other office. All officers take an oath of fidelity to their duty, and to the conſtitution of this State, and of the United States; and, for malconduct, may be impeached by the Houſe of Repreſentatives, and tried by the Senate. This conſtitution aſſerts the ſupreme power of the people; liberty of conſcience; trial by jury; and ſubordination of the military to the civil power. It excludes *ex poſt facto* laws; bills of attainder; exceſſive bail; and titles of nobility and hereditary diſtinction.

The legiſlature has power, under certain regulations, to make amendments to the conſtitution. And a convention may be called by a vote of two thirds of both branches of the whole repreſentation.

This conſtitution was ratified June 3d, 1790.

LAWS.] The laws of this State have nothing in them of a particular nature, excepting what ariſes from the permiſſion of ſlavery. The evidence of a ſlave cannot be taken againſt a white man; and the maſter who kills his ſlave is not puniſhable otherwiſe than by a pecuniary mulct, and twelve months impriſonment.

A committee was appointed, at the ſeſſion of the legiſlature in 1792, to put in train the buſineſs of reviſing and amending the negro act, or the law for governing the ſlaves. The iſſue we hope will meliorate the condition of the ſlaves, and afford an evidence to the world of the enlightened policy, and increaſing humanity of the citizens of this State. We anticipate an iſſue of this nature the rather, becauſe a diſpoſition to ſoften the rigors of ſlavery has of late been manifeſted, by allowing them fiſh, tobacco, and ſummer clothing, which formerly was not cuſtomary.

A law, altering the mode of deſcent of inteſtate eſtates, which formerly deſcended according to the laws of England, was paſſed in 1792. According to the preſent law, a more equal partition takes place, and more conformable to a republican government, and to the dictates of natural affection.

By a late regulation, the judges of the court, who before had a ſalary of 500l. each, and fees, have now 600l. and no fees. The chief juſtice has 800l.

STATE OF LITERATURE.] Gentlemen of fortune, before the late war, ſent their ſons to Europe for education. During the war and ſince, they have generally ſent them to the middle and northern States. Thoſe who have been at this expenſe in educating their ſons, have been but comparatively few in number, ſo that the literature of the State is at a low ebb. Since the peace, however, it has begun to flouriſh. There are ſeveral reſpectable academies at Charleſtown; one at Beaufort, on Port Royal Iſland, and ſeveral others in different parts of the State. Three colleges have lately been incorporated by law; one at Charleſtown, one at Winnſborough, in the diſtrict of Camden, the other at Cambridge, in the diſtrict of Ninety-Six. The public and private donations for the ſupport of theſe three colleges were originally intended to have been appropriated jointly, for the erecting and ſupporting of one reſpectable college. The diviſion of theſe donations has fruſtrated this deſign. Part of the old barracks in Charleſtown has been handſomely fitted up, and converted into a college, and there are a number of ſtudents; but it does not yet merit a more dignified name than that of a reſpectable academy. The Mount Sion College, at Winnſborough, is ſupported by a reſpectable ſociety of gentlemen, who have long been incorporated. This inſtitution flouriſhes and bids fair for uſefulneſs. The college at Cambridge is no more than a grammar ſchool. That the literature of this State might be put upon a reſpectable footing, nothing is wanting but a ſpirit of enterprize among its wealthy inhabitants.

CHARITABLE AND OTHER SOCIETIES.] Theſe are the South Carolina, Mount Sion, Library and St. Cecilia Societies; a ſociety for the relief of the widows and orphans of clergymen, a medical ſociety lately inſtituted in Charleſtown, and a muſical ſociety. At Beaufort and on St. Helena are ſeveral charitable ſocieties, incorporated with funds to a conſiderable amount, deſigned principally for the education of poor children, and which promiſe, at a future day, to be of great public utility. What are called Jockey Clubs, have increaſed within a few years.

INDIANS.] The Catabaws are the only nation of Indians in this State. They have but one town, called Catabaw, ſituated on Catabaw river, in latitude 34° 49′, on the boundary line between North and South Carolinas, and contains about 450 inhabitants, of which about 150 are fighting men.

It is worthy of remark, that this nation was long at war with the Six Nations, into whoſe country they often penetrated, which it is ſaid no other Indian nation from the ſouth or weſt ever did. The Six Nations always conſidered them as the braveſt of their enemies, till they were ſurrounded by the ſettlements of white people, whoſe neighbourhood, with other concurrent cauſes, have rendered them corrupt and nerveleſs.

RELIGION.] Since the revolution, by which all denominations were put on an equal footing, there have been no diſputes between different religious ſects. They all agree to differ.

The upper parts of this State are ſettled chiefly by Preſbyterians, Baptiſts, and Methodiſts. From this moſt probable calculations it is ſuppoſed that the religious denominations of this State, as to numbers, may be ranked as follows: Preſbyterians, including the Congregational and Independent churches, Epiſcopalians, Baptiſts, Methodiſts, &c.

CHARACTER.] There is no peculiarity in the manners of the inhabitants of this State, except what ariſes from the miſchievous influence of ſlavery; and in this, indeed, they do not differ from the inhabitants of the other ſouthern States. Slavery,

by

by exempting great numbers from the neceſſities of labour, leads to luxury, diſſipation, and extravagance. The abſolute authority which is exerciſed over their ſlaves, too much favours a haughty ſupercilious behaviour. A diſpoſition to obey the Chriſtian precept, "Do to others as you would that others ſhould do unto you," is not cheriſhed by a daily exhibition of many made for one. The Carolinians ſooner arrive at maturity, both in their bodies and minds, than the natives of colder climates. They poſſeſs a natural quickneſs and vivacity of genius, ſuperior to the inhabitants of the north; but too generally want that enterprize and perſeverance, which are neceſſary for the higheſt attainments in the arts and ſciences. They have, indeed, few motives to enterprize. Inhabiting a fertile country, which, by the labour of ſlaves, produces plentifully, and creates affluence; in a climate which favours indulgence, eaſe, and a diſpoſition for convivial pleaſures, they too generally reſt contented with barely knowledge enough to tranſact the common affairs of life. There are not a few inſtances, however, in this State, in which genius has been united with application, and the effects of their union have been happily experienced, not only by this State, but by the United States.

The wealth produced by the labour of the ſlaves, furniſhes their proprietors with the means of hoſpitality; and no people in the world uſe theſe means with more liberality. Many of the inhabitants ſpare no pains or expenſe in giving the higheſt poliſh of education to their children, by enabling them to travel, and by other means unattainable by thoſe who have but moderate fortunes.

The Carolinians are generally affable and eaſy in their manners, and polite and attentive to ſtrangers. The ladies want the bloom of the north, but have an engaging ſoftneſs and delicacy in their appearance and manners, and many of them poſſeſs the polite and elegant accompliſhments.

Hunting is the moſt faſhionable amuſement in this State. At this the country gentlemen are extremely expert, and with ſurpriſing dexterity purſue their game through the woods. Gaming of all kinds is more diſcountenanced, among faſhionable people, in this than in any of the ſouthern States. Twice a year, ſtatedly, a claſs of ſportive gentlemen, in this and the neighbouring States, have their horſe-races. Bets of ten or fifteen hundred guineas have been ſometimes laid on theſe occaſions.

There is no inſtance, perhaps, in which the richer claſs of people treſpaſs more on the rules of propriety than in the mode of conducting their funerals. That a decent reſpect be paid to the dead, is the natural dictate of refined humanity; but this is not done by ſumptuous and expenſive entertainments, ſplendid decorations, and pompous ceremonies, which a miſguided faſhion has here introduced and rendered neceſſary. In Charleſtown, and other parts of the State, no perſons attend a funeral any more than a wedding, unleſs particularly invited. Wine, punch, and all kinds of liquors, tea, coffee, cake, &c. in profuſion, are handed round on theſe ſolemn occaſions. In ſhort, one would ſuppoſe that the religious proverb of the wiſe man, "It is better to go to the houſe of mourning than to the houſe of feaſting," would be unintelligible and wholly inapplicable here, as it would be difficult to diſtinguiſh the houſe of mourning from the houſe of feaſting.

Military Strength.] There are between 20,000 and 30,000 fighting men in this State. About ten men are kept to guard Fort Johnſon, on James Iſland, at the entrance of Charleſtown harbour, by which no veſſel can paſs, unleſs the maſter or mate make oath that there is no malignant diſtemper on board. The militia laws, enacting that every freeman, between 16 and 50 years of age, ſhall be prepared for war, have been but indifferently obeyed ſince the peace. An unuſual degree of military ſpirit,

however, ſeems lately to have ariſen among the citizens of Charleſtown. No leſs than eight volunteer uniform companies have lately formed in this city, beſides a troop of horſe, and the ancient battalion of artillery.

PUBLIC REVENUE AND EXPENSES.] The public revenue of this State is, nominally, 90,000l. ſterling; but a great part of this is either not collected, or paid in ſecurities, which are much depreciated. The expenſes of government are about 16,000l. ſterling.

MODE OF LEVYING TAXES.] The great bulk of the revenue of the State is raiſed by a tax on lands and negroes. The lands, for the purpoſe of being taxed according to their value, are divided into three grand diviſions; the firſt reaches from the ſea-coaſt to the extent of the flowing of the tides; the ſecond, from theſe points to the fall of the rivers; and thence to the utmoſt verge of the weſtern ſettlement makes the third. Theſe grand diviſions, for the ſake of more exactly aſcertaining the value of the lands, are ſubdivided into 21 different ſpecies; the moſt valuable of which is eſtimated at ſix pounds, and the leaſt valuable at one ſhilling per acre. One per cent. on the value thus eſtimated is levied from all granted lands in the State. The collection of taxes is not annexed to the office of ſheriff, but is committed to particular gentlemen appointed for that purpoſe, who are allowed two and a half per cent. in Charleſtown, and five per cent. in the other parts of the State, on all they collect.

BANKS.] Beſides a branch of the national bank, a bank, by the name of the South Carolina bank, was eſtabliſhed in 1792 in Charleſtown.

DAMAGE BY THE LATE WAR.] The damages which this State ſuſtained in the late war are thus eſtimated: the three entire crops of 1779, 1780, and 1781, all of which were uſed by the Britiſh; the crop of 1782, taken by the Americans; about 25,000 negroes; many thouſand pounds worth of plate, and houſhold furniture in abundance; the villages of Georgetown and Camden burnt; the loſs to the citizens directly by the plunderings and devaſtations of the Britiſh army, and indirectly by American impreſſments, and by the depreciation of the paper currency, together with the heavy debt of 1,200,000l. ſterling, incurred for the ſupport of the war, in one aggregate view, make the price of independence to South Carolina, excluſive of the blood of its citizens, upwards of 3,000,000l. ſterling.

COMMERCE.] The little attention that has been paid to manufactures, occaſions a vaſt conſumption of foreign imported articles; but the quantities and value of their exports generally leave a balance in favour of the State, except when there are large importations of negroes.

The amount of exports from the port of Charleſtown, in the year ending November 1787, was then eſtimated, from authentic documents, at 505,279l. 19s. 5d. ſterling money. The number of veſſels cleared from the cuſtom-houſe the ſame year, was 947, meaſuring 62,118 tons; 735 of theſe, meaſuring 41,531 tons, were American; the others belonged to Great Britain, Spain, France, the United Netherlands, and Ireland.

The principal articles exported from this State are, rice, indigo, tobacco, ſkins of various kinds, beef, pork, cotton, pitch, tar, roſin, turpentine, myrtle wax, lumber, naval ſtores, cork, leather, pink root, ſnake root, ginſeng, &c. In the moſt ſucceſsful ſeaſons, there have been as many as 140,000 barrels of rice, and 1,300,000lbs. of indigo, exported in a year. From the 15th of December, 1791, to September, 1792, 108,567 tierces of rice, averaging 550lbs. nett weight each, were exported from Charleſtown. In the year ending September 30th, 1791, excluſive of two

quarters, for which no returns were made, the amount of exports from this State was 1,866,021 dollars.

Practice of Law, Courts, &c.] From the firſt ſettlement of this country in 1669, to the year 1769, a ſingle court, called the Court of Common Pleas, was thought ſufficient to tranſact the judicial buſineſs of the State. This court was invariably held at Charleſtown, where all the records were kept, and all civil buſineſs tranſacted. As the province increaſed, inconveniencies aroſe, and created uneaſineſs among the people.

To remedy theſe inconveniencies an act was paſſed in 1769, by which the province was divided into ſeven diſtricts, which have been mentioned. The court of common pleas (inveſted with the powers of the ſame court in England) ſat four times a year in Charleſtown. By the above-mentioned act, the judges of the court of common pleas were empowered to ſit as judges of the court of ſeſſions, inveſted with the powers of the court of king's bench in England, in the criminal juriſdiction. The act likewiſe directed the judges of the courts of common pleas and ſeſſions in Charleſtown diſtrict, to divide, and two of the judges to proceed on what is called the northern circuit, and the other two on the ſouthern circuit, diſtributing juſtice in their progreſs. This mode of adminiſtering juſtice continued till 1785, when, by the unanimous exertions of the two upper diſtricts, an act was paſſed, eſtabliſhing county courts in all the counties of the four diſtricts of Camden, Ninety Six, Cheraws, and Orangeburgh. The county courts are empowered to ſit four times in a year. Before the eſtabliſhment of county courts, the lawyers all reſided at Charleſtown, under the immediate eye of government; and the Carolina bar was as pure and genteel as any in the United States. Since this eſtabliſhment, lawyers have flocked in from all quarters, and ſettled in different parts of the country, and law ſuits have been multiplied beyond all former knowledge.

History.] The reformation in France occaſioned a civil war between the Proteſtant and Catholic parties in that kingdom. During theſe domeſtic troubles, Jaſper de Coligni, a principal commander of the Proteſtant army, fitted out two ſhips, and ſent them with a colony to America, under the command of Jean Ribaud, for the purpoſe of ſecuring a retreat from proſecution. Ribaud landed at the mouth of what is now called Albemarle river, in North Carolina. This colony, after enduring incredible hardſhips, were extirpated by the Spaniards. No further attempts were made to plant a colony in this quarter, till the reign of Charles II. of England. Mention is, however, made of Sir Robert Heath's having obtained a grant of Carolina, from Charles I. in 1630; but no ſettlements were made in conſequence of this grant.

In 1662, after the reſtoration of Charles II. Edward, Earl of Clarendon, and ſeven others, obtained a grant of all lands lying between the 31ſt and 36th degrees of north latitude.

A ſecond charter, given two years after, enlarged their boundaries, and comprehended all that province, territory, &c. extending eaſtward as far as the north end of Currituck Inlet, upon a ſtrait line weſterly to Wyonoke Creek, which lies within or about latitude 36° 30′; and ſo weſt, in a direct line as far as the South Sea; and ſouth and weſtward as far as 29° north latitude incluſive; and ſo weſt in direct lines to the South Sea.* Of this large territory, the King conſtituted theſe eight perſons abſolute Lords

* Various cauſes have rendered it expedient to divide this extenſive territory: in 1728, North Carolina was erected into a ſeparate province. In 1732, George II. granted to certain truſtees therein mentioned, and to their ſucceſſors, a charter of all that part of Carolina, lying between the moſt northern ſtream of Savannah

Lords Proprietors; inveſting them with all neceſſary powers to ſettle and govern the ſame.

Nothing was ſucceſsfully done towards the ſettlement of this country till 1609; at this time, the proprietors, in virtue of their powers, engaged the famous Mr. Locke to frame for them a conſtitution and body of laws. This conſtitution, conſiſting of 120 articles, was ariſtocratical, and though ingenious in theory, could never be ſucceſsfully reduced to practice.

Three claſſes of nobility were to be eſtabliſhed, viz. barons, caſſiques, and landgraves. The firſt to poſſeſs twelve; the ſecond, twenty-four; the third, forty-eight thouſand acres of land, which was to be unalienable.

In 1669, William Sayle being appointed firſt governor of this country, embarked with a colony, and ſettled on the neck of land where Charleſtown now ſtands.

During the continuance of the proprietary government, a period of 50 years, (reckoning from 1669 to 1719) the colony was involved in perpetual quarrels. Oftentimes they were haraſſed by the Indians; ſometimes infeſted with pirates: frequently invaded by the French and Spaniſh fleets; conſtantly uneaſy under their injudicious government; and quarrelling with their governors.

But their moſt bitter diſſenſions were reſpecting religion. The Epiſcopalians being more numerous than the diſſenters, attempted to exclude the latter from a ſeat in the legiſlature. Theſe attempts ſo far ſucceeded, as that the Church of England, by

Savannah river; along the ſea coaſt, to the moſt ſouthern ſtream of Alatamaha river; weſtward, from the heads of theſe rivers, reſpectively in direct lines to the South Sea, incluſively, with all iſlands within twenty leagues of the ſame.

In 1762, the governor of South Carolina, conceiving that the lands lying ſouth of Alatamaha river belonged to South Carolina, granted ſeveral tracts of ſaid land. Upon complaint being made by the government of Georgia, of this ſuppoſed encroachment on their territory, his Majeſty iſſued a proclamation in 1762, annexing to Georgia all the lands lying between the rivers Alatamaha and St. Mary's, but did not by this annul the Carolina grants. The boundary line, dividing the two provinces (now States) of South Carolina and Georgia, had long been the ſubject of controverſy; the former claiming the lands lying between the North Carolina line, and a line to run due weſt from the mouth of Tugulo and Keowee rivers; conſequently, that that ſpot was the head of Savannah river; the latter contended, that the ſource of Keowee river was to be conſidered as the head of Savannah river.

For the purpoſe of ſettling this controverſy, commiſſioners were appointed in April, 1787, by the contending States, veſted with full powers to determine the controverted boundary, which they fixed as follows:

"The moſt northern branch or ſtream of the river Savannah, from the ſea or mouth of ſuch ſtream, to the fork or confluence of the rivers, now called Tugulo and Keowee, and from thence the moſt northern branch or ſtream of the ſaid river Tugulo, till it interſects the northern boundary line of South Carolina, if the ſaid branch of Tugulo extends ſo far north, reſerving all the iſlands in the ſaid rivers Savannah and Tugulo to Georgia: but if the ſaid branch or ſtream of Tugulo does not extend to the north boundary line of South Carolina, then a weſt line to the Miſſiſſippi to be drawn from the head ſpring or ſource of the ſaid branch of Tugulo river, which extends to the higheſt northern latitude, ſhall for ever hereafter form the ſeparating limit and boundary between the States of South Carolina and Georgia."

It is ſuppoſed, in the map of this State, that the moſt northern branch of the Tugulo river interſects the northern boundary of South Carolina, which, if it be fact, brings the State to a point in latitude 35°, and about 8° 35′ weſt longitude from Philadelphia; but it is not yet aſcertained whether this will be the caſe. If it ſhall be found that the moſt northern ſource of the Tugulo does not extend to latitude 35°, then South Carolina, or the United States by her aſſignment, will claim a ſtrip of country extending from the meridian weſt to the Miſſiſſippi, in breadth from the moſt northern ſource of the Tugulo to latitude 35°, unleſs the treaties ſubſiſting between the United States and the Creek Indians ſhall interfere and bound them as they do Georgia.

It ought to be here noted, that South Carolina, in the forementioned treaty with Georgia, gave up a claim which it had till then retained, to the lands ſouth of the Alatamaha, as a return to Georgia for agreeing that the boundary between the two States ſhould be the moſt northern branch of the Tugulo, inſtead of the Keowee, as had been originally inſiſted on by the State of Georgia. This confirms to the State of South Carolina a very rich tract of country, which had been reſerved by that State for the officers and ſoldiers of the late army.

a majority of votes, was eſtabliſhed by law. This illiberal act threw the colony into the utmoſt confuſion, and was followed by a train of evil conſequences, which proved to be the principal cauſe of the revolution which ſoon followed. Notwithſtanding the act eſtabliſhing the Church of England was repealed, tranquillity was not reſtored to the colony. A change of government was generally deſired by the coloniſts. They found that they were not ſufficiently protected by their proprietary conſtitution, and effected a revolution about the year 1719, and the government became regal.

In 1728, the proprietors accepted 22,500l. ſterling from the crown, for the property and juriſdiction, except Lord Granville, who reſerved his eighth of the property, which has never yet been formally given up. At this time the conſtitution was new-modelled, and the territory, limited by the original charter, was divided into North and South Carolinas.

From this period the colony began to flouriſh. It was protected by a government, formed on the plan of the Engliſh conſtitution. Under the foſtering care of the Mother Country, its growth was aſtoniſhingly rapid. Between the years 1763 and 1775, the number of inhabitants was more than doubled. No one indulged a wiſh for a change in their political conſtitution, till the memorable ſtamp act paſſed in 1765.

From this period till 1775, various attempts were made by Great Britain to tax her colonies without conſent; theſe attempts were invariably oppoſed. The congreſs, who met at Philadelphia this year, unanimouſly approved the oppoſition, and on the 19th of April war commenced.

During the vigorous conteſt for independence, this State was a great ſufferer. For three years it was the ſeat of the war. It feels and laments the loſs of many reſpectable citizens. Since the peace, it has been emerging from that melancholy confuſion and poverty, in which it was generally involved by the devaſtations of a relentleſs enemy. The inhabitants are faſt multiplying by emigrations from other States; the agricultural intereſts of the State are reviving; commerce is flouriſhing; economy is becoming more faſhionable; and ſcience begins to ſpread her ſalutary influences among the citizens. And under the operation of the preſent government, this State, from her natural, commercial, and agricultural advantages, and the abilities of her leading characters, promiſes to become one of the richeſt in the Union.

See Ramſay's Hiſtory of the Revolution in South Carolina, and the Hiſtory of Carolina and Georgia, anonymous, ſuppoſed to be by Hewett.

GEORGIA.

Situation and Extent.

Miles.				
Length 600 }	between	{ 5°	and 16°	W. Long.
Breadth 250 }		{ 31°	and 35°	N. Lat.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED eaſt, by the Atlantic ocean; ſouth, by Eaſt and Weſt Floridas; weſt, by the river Miſſiſſippi; north and north-eaſt, by South Carolina, and by lands ceded to the United States by South Carolina.

Civil

CIVIL DIVISIONS AND POPULATION.] That part of the State which has been laid out in counties, is divided into three diſtricts, which are ſubdivided into 11 counties, which, with the number of inhabitants, are as follows:

Diſtricts.	Counties.		Chief Towns.
Lower diſtrict, contains 21,566 inhabitants.	Camden	-	St. Patrick's
	Glyn	-	Brunſwick
	Liberty	-	Sunbury
	Chatham	-	SAVANNAH
	Effingham	-	Ebenezer
Middle diſtrict, contains 25,336 inhabitants.	Richmond	-	AUGUSTA
	Burke	-	Wayneſborough Louiſville
	Waſhington	-	Golphinton
Upper diſtrict, contains 37,946 inhabitants.	Wilkes	-	Waſhington
	Franklin		
	Green	-	Greenſburgh

Total number of inhabitants in the State, 82,548, of whom 29,264 are ſlaves.

Before the revolution, Georgia, like all the ſouthern States, was divided into pariſhes; but this mode of diviſion is now aboliſhed, and that of counties has ſucceeded in its room.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] The eaſtern part of the State, between the mountains and the ocean, and the rivers Savannah and St. Mary's, a tract of country more than 120 miles from north to ſouth, and 40 or 50 eaſt and weſt, is entirely level, without a hill or ſtone. At the diſtance of about 40 or 50 miles from the ſea-board, or ſalt-marſh, the lands begin to be more or leſs uneven. The ridges gradually riſe one above another into hills, and the hills ſucceſſively increaſing in height, till they finally terminate in mountains. That vaſt chain of mountains which commences with the Katt's Kill, near Hudſon's river, in the State of New York, known by the names of the Allegany and Apalachian Mountains, terminate in this State, about 60 miles ſouth of its northern boundary. From the foot of this mountain ſpreads a wide extended plain, of the richeſt ſoil, and in a latitude and climate well adapted to the cultivation of moſt of the Eaſt India productions.

CLIMATE, DISEASES, &c.] In ſome parts of this State, at particular ſeaſons of the year, the climate cannot be eſteemed ſalubrious. In the low country near the rice ſwamps, bilious complaints, and fevers of various kinds, are pretty univerſal during the months of July, Auguſt, and September, which, for this reaſon, are called the ſickly months.

The diſorders peculiar to this climate originate partly from the badneſs of the water, which in the low country, except in and about Savannah and ſome other places, where good ſprings are found, is generally brackiſh, and partly from the noxious putrid vapours which are exhaled from the ſtagnant waters in the rice ſwamps. Beſides, the long continuance of warm weather produces a general relaxation of the nervous ſyſtem, and as a great proportion of the inhabitants have no neceſſary labour to call them to exerciſe, a large ſhare of indolence is the natural conſequence; and indolence, eſpecially amongſt a luxurious people, is ever the parent of diſeaſe. The immenſe quantities of ſpirituous liquors which are uſed to correct the brackiſhneſs of the water,

water, form a ſpecies of intemperance which too often proves ruinous to the conſtitution. Parents of infirm, ſickly habits, often, in more ſenſes than one, have children of their own likeneſs. A conſiderable part of the diſeaſes of the preſent inhabitants may therefore be conſidered as hereditary.

Before the ſickly ſeaſon commences, many of the rich planters of this State remove with their families to the ſea iſlands, or ſome elevated healthy ſituation, where they reſide three or four months, for the benefit of the freſh air. In the winter and ſpring, pleuriſies, peripneumonies, and other inflammatory diſorders, occaſioned by ſudden and violent colds, are conſiderably common and frequently fatal. Conſumptions, epilepſies, cancers, palſies, and apoplexies, are not ſo common among the inhabitants of the ſouthern as northern climates.

The winters in Georgia are very mild and pleaſant. Snow is ſeldom or never ſeen. Vegetation is not frequently prevented by ſevere froſts. Cattle ſubſiſt tolerably well through the winter, without any other food than what they obtain in the woods and ſavannahs, and are fatter in that ſeaſon than in any other. In the hilly country, which begins about fifty, and in ſome places one hundred miles from the ſea, the air is pure and ſalubrious, and the water plenty and good. From June to September, the mercury in Fahrenheit's thermometer commonly fluctuates from 76° to 90°; in winter, from 40° to 60°. The moſt prevailing winds are ſouth-weſt and eaſt; in winter, north-weſt. The eaſt wind is warmeſt in winter and cooleſt in ſummer. The ſouth wind, in ſummer and fall particularly, is damp, ſultry, unelaſtic, and of courſe unhealthy.

In the ſouth-eaſt parts of this State, which lie within a few degrees of the torrid zone, the atmoſphere is kept in motion by impreſſions from the trade winds. This ſerves to purify the air, and render it fit for reſpiration; ſo that it is found to have a very advantageous effect on perſons of conſumptive habits.

Rivers.] Savannah river divides this State from South Carolina. Its courſe is nearly from north-weſt to ſouth-eaſt. It is formed principally of two branches, by the names of Tugulo and Keowee, which ſpring from the mountains, and unite fifteen miles north-weſt of the northern boundary of Wilkes county. It is navigable for large veſſels up to Savannah, and for boats of one hundred feet keel as far as Auguſta. After riſing a fall juſt above this place, it is paſſable for boats to the mouth of Tugulo river. After it takes the name of Savannah, at the confluence of the Tugulo and Keowee, it receives a number of tributary ſtreams, from the Georgia ſide, the principal of which is Broad river, which riſes in the county of Franklin, and runs ſouth-eaſt through part of Wilkes county, and mingles with Savannah at the town of Peterſburgh, and might, with a trifling expenſe, be made boatable twenty-five or thirty miles through the beſt ſettlements in Wilkes county. Tybee bar, at the entrance of Savannah river, in latitude 31° 57′, has ſixteen feet water at half tide.

Ogeechee river, about eighteen miles ſouth of the Savannah, is a ſmaller river, and nearly parallel with it in its courſe.

Alatamaha,* about ſixty miles ſouth of Savannah river, has its ſource in the Cherokee mountains, near the head of Tugulo, the great weſt branch of Savannah, and, before it leaves the mountains, is joined and augmented by innumerable rivulets; thence it deſcends through the hilly country, with all its collateral branches, and winds rapidly amongſt hills two hundred and fifty miles, and then enters the flat, plain country, by the name of the Oakmulge; thence meandering one hundred and fifty miles, it is joined on the eaſt ſide by the Ocone, which likewiſe heads in the lower ridges

* Pronounced Oltamawhaw.

ridges of the mountains. After this confluence, having now gained a vaſt acquiſition of waters, it aſſumes the name of Alatamaha, when it becomes a large majeſtic river, flowing with gentle windings through a vaſt plain foreſt, near one hundred miles, and enters the Atlantic by ſeveral mouths. The north channel, or entrance, glides by the heights of Darien, on the eaſt bank, about ten miles above the bar, and, running from thence with ſeveral turnings, enters the ocean between Sapello and Wolf iſlands. The ſouth channel, which is eſteemed the largeſt and deepeſt, after its ſeparation from the north, deſcends gently, winding by M'Intoſh's and Broughton iſlands; and laſtly, by the weſt coaſt of St. Simon's iſland, enters the ocean, through St. Simon's ſound, between the ſouth end of the iſland of that name and the north end of Jekyl iſland. On the weſt banks of the ſouth channel, ten or twelve miles above its mouth, and nearly oppoſite Darien, are to be ſeen the remains of an ancient fort, or fortification; it is now a regular tetragon terrace, about four feet high, with baſtions at each angle; the area may contain about an acre of ground, but the foſſe which ſurrounded it is nearly filled up. There are large live oaks, pines, and other trees, growing upon it, and in the old fields adjoining. It is ſuppoſed to have been the work of the French or Spaniards. A large ſwamp lies betwixt it and the river, and a conſiderable creek runs cloſe by the works, and enters the river through the ſwamp, a ſmall diſtance above Broughton iſland. About ſeventy or eighty miles above the confluence of the Oakmulge and Ocone, the trading path from Auguſta to the Creek nation, croſſes theſe fine rivers, which are there forty miles apart. On the eaſt banks of the Oakmulge, this trading road runs nearly two miles through ancient Indian fields, which are called the Oakmulge fields; they are the rich low lands of the river. On the heights of theſe low grounds are yet viſible monuments or traces of an ancient town, ſuch as artificial mounts or terraces, ſquares, and banks, encircling conſiderable areas. Their old fields and planting land extend up and down the river, fifteen or twenty miles from this ſite. And, if we are to give credit to the account the Creeks give of themſelves, this place is remarkable for being the firſt town or ſettlement, when they ſat down (as they term it) or eſtabliſhed themſelves, after their emigration from the weſt, beyond the Miſſiſſippi, their original native country.

Beſides theſe, there is Turtle river, Little Sitilla or St. Ille, Great Sitilla, Crooked river, and St. Mary's, which form a part of the ſouthern boundary of the United States. St. Mary's river has its ſource from a vaſt lake, or rather marſh, called Ouaquaphenogaw, hereafter deſcribed, and flows through a vaſt plain and pine foreſt, about one hundred and fifty miles to the ocean, with which it communicates between the points of Amelia and Talbert's iſlands, latitude 30° 44′, and is navigable for veſſels of conſiderable burthen for ninety miles. Its banks afford immenſe quantities of fine timber, ſuited to the Weſt India market. Along this river, every four or five miles, are bluffs convenient for veſſels to haul to and load.

The rivers in the middle and weſtern parts of this State are, Apalachicola, which is formed by the Chatahouchee and Flint rivers, Mobile, Paſcagoula, and Pearl rivers. All theſe running ſouthwardly, empty into the Gulf of Mexico. The forementioned rivers abound with a great variety of fiſh, among which are the mullet, whiting, ſheepſhead, cat, rock, trout, drum, baſs, brim, white, ſhad, and ſturgeon. The bays and lagoons are ſtored with oyſters, and other ſhell fiſh, crabs, ſhrimps, &c. The clams, in particular, are large, their meat white, tender, and delicate. The ſhark and great black ſtingray are inſatiable cannibals, and very troubleſome to the fiſhermen.

Lakes and Swamps.] The lake, or rather marſh, called Ouaquaphenogaw, lies between Flint and Oakmulge rivers, and is nearly three hundred miles in circumference. In wet ſeaſons it appears like an inland ſea, and has ſeveral large iſlands of rich land; one of which the preſent generation of Creek Indians repreſent as the moſt bliſsful ſpot on earth. They ſay it is inhabited by a peculiar race of Indians, whoſe women are incomparably beautiful. They tell you alſo that this terreſtrial paradiſe has been ſeen by ſome enterpriſing hunters, when in purſuit of their game, who being loſt in inextricable ſwamps and bogs, and on the point of periſhing, were unexpectedly relieved by a company of beautiful women, whom they call daughters of the Sun, who kindly gave them ſuch proviſions as they had with them, conſiſting of fruit and corn cakes, and then enjoined them to fly for ſafety to their own country, becauſe their huſbands were fierce men, and cruel to ſtrangers. They further ſay that theſe hunters had a view of their ſettlements, ſituated on the elevated banks of an iſland, in a beautiful lake; but that in their endeavours to approach it, they were involved in perpetual labyrinths, and, like enchanted land, ſtill as they imagined they had juſt gained it, it ſeemed to fly before them. They determined at length to quit the deluſive purſuit, and with much difficulty effected a retreat. When they reported their adventures to their countrymen, the young warriors were inflamed with an irreſiſtible deſire to invade and conquer ſo charming a country, but all their attempts had hitherto proved fruitleſs, they never being able again to find the ſpot. They tell another ſtory concerning this ſequeſtered country, which ſeems not improbable, which is, that the inhabitants are the poſterity of a fugitive remnant of the ancient Yamaſes, who eſcaped maſſacre after a bloody and deciſive battle between them and the Creeks, (who, it is certain, conquered and nearly exterminated that once powerful people) and here found an aſylum, remote and ſecure from the fury of their proud conquerors.

The rivers St. Mary, Sitilla or St. Ille, and the beautiful Little St. Juan, which empties into the Bay of Apalachi at St. Mark's, are ſaid to flow from this lake.*

About ſixteen miles from the mouth of Broad river, on its ſouth ſide, is what is called the Gooſepond, a tract of about one hundred and eighty acres, covered with living water about two feet deep. It diſcharges into the river, and is fed by two ſprings.

Chief Towns.] The preſent ſeat of government in this State is Augusta. It is ſituated on the ſouth-weſt bank of Savannah river, which is here about five hundred yards wide, about one hundred and forty-four miles from the ſea, and one hundred and twenty-ſeven north-weſt of Savannah. The town, which in 1787 contained two hundred houſes, is on a fine large plain, at the foot of the firſt falls in the river, which in a dry ſeaſon are four or five feet in height; and as it enjoys the beſt ſoil, and the advantage of a central ſituation between the upper and lower counties, is riſing faſt into importance. In 1782 there were but three or four houſes in the town.

Savannah, the former capital of Georgia, ſtands on a high ſandy bluff, on the ſouth ſide of the river of the ſame name, and ſeventeen miles from its mouth. The town is regularly built in the form of a parallellogram, and, including its ſuburbs, contained, in 1787, two hundred and twenty-ſeven dwelling houſes, one Epiſcopal church, a Preſbyterian church, a Synagogue, and a court houſe. The number of its inhabitants, excluſive of the blacks, amounted at that time to about eight hundred and thirty, ſeventy of whom were Jews.

* Bartram's Travels.

In

In Savannah, and within a circumference of about ten miles from it, there were, in the ſummer of 1787, about 2300 inhabitants. Of theſe one hundred and ninety-two were above fifty years of age, and all in good health. The ages of a lady and her ſix children, then living in the town, amounted to three hundred and eighty-five years. This computation, which was actually made, ſerves to ſhew that Savannah is not really ſo unhealthy as has been commonly repreſented.

Sunbury is a ſea port town, favoured with a ſafe and very convenient harbour. Several ſmall iſlands intervene, and partly obſtruct a diſtant view of the ocean; and, interlocking with each other, render the paſſage out to ſea winding, but not difficult. It is a very pleaſant, healthy town, and is the reſort of the planters from the adjacent places of Midway and Newport, during the ſickly months. It was burnt by the Britiſh in the late war, but has ſince been rebuilt. An academy was eſtabliſhed here in 1788, which, under an able inſtructor, has proved a very uſeful inſtitution.

Brunswick, in Glynn county, latitude 31° 10′, is ſituated at the mouth of Turtle river, at which place this river empties itſelf into St. Simon's ſound. Brunſwick has a ſafe and capacious harbour; and the bar, at the entrance into it, has water deep enough for the largeſt veſſel that ſwims. The town is regularly laid out, but not yet built. From its advantageous ſituation, and from the fertility of the back country, it promiſes to be hereafter one of the firſt trading towns in Georgia.

Frederica, on the iſland of St. Simon, is nearly in latitude 31° 15′; it is one of the oldeſt towns in Georgia, and was founded by General Oglethorpe. The fortreſs was regular and beautiful, conſtructed chiefly with brick, and is now in ruins. The town contains but few houſes, which ſtand on an eminence, if conſidered with regard to the marſhes before it, upon a branch of Alatamaha river, which waſhes the weſt ſide of this agreeable iſland, and forms a bay before the town, affording a ſafe and ſecure harbour for veſſels of the largeſt burthens, which may lie along the wharf.

Washington, the chief town in the county of Wilts, is ſituated in latitude 33° 22′, about fifty miles north-weſt of Auguſta; it had, in 1788, a court houſe, gaol, thirty-four dwelling houſes, and an academy, whoſe funds amounted to about 800l. ſterling, and the number of ſtudents to between ſixty and ſeventy.

The town of Louisville, which is deſigned as the future ſeat of government in this State, has been laid out on the bank of Ogeechee river, about ſeventy miles from its mouth, but is not yet built.

Soil, Productions, &c.] The ſoil and its fertility are various, according to ſituation and different improvement. The iſlands on the ſea board, in their natural ſtate, are covered with a plentiful growth of pine, oak, and hiccory, live oak, (an uncommonly hard and a very valuable wood) and ſome red cedar. The ſoil is a mixture of ſand and black mould, making what is commonly called a grey ſoil. A conſiderable part of it, particularly that whereon grow the oak, hiccory, and live oak, is very rich, and yields, on cultivation, good crops of indigo, cotton, corn, and potatoes. Theſe iſlands are ſurrounded by navigable creeks, between which and the main land is a large extent of ſalt marſh, fronting the whole State, not leſs, on an averge, than four or five miles in breadth, interſected with creeks in various directions, admitting, through the whole, an inland navigation between the iſlands and main land, from the north-eaſt to the ſouth-eaſt corners of the State. The eaſt ſides of theſe iſlands are, for the moſt part, clean, hard, ſandy beaches, expoſed to the waſh of the ocean. Between theſe iſlands are the entrances of the rivers from the interior country, winding through the low ſalt marſhes, and delivering their waters into the

ſounds, which form capacious harbours of from three to eight miles over, and which communicate with each other by parallel ſalt creeks. The principal iſlands are Skidaway, Waſſaw, Oſſabaw, St. Catharine's, Sapelo, Frederica, Jekyl, Cumberland, and Amelia.

The ſoil of the main land, adjoining the marſhes and creeks, is nearly of the ſame quality with that of the iſlands, except that which borders on thoſe rivers and creeks which ſtretch far back into the country. On theſe, immediately after you leave the ſalts, begin the valuable rice ſwamps, which, on cultivation, afford the preſent principal ſtaple of commerce. The moſt of the rice lands lie on rivers, which, as far as the tide flows, are called tide lands; or on creeks and particular branches of water, flowing in ſome deeper or lower parts of the lands, which are called inland ſwamps, and extend back in the country from fifteen to twenty-five miles, beyond which very little rice is planted, though it will grow exceedingly well, as experiment has proved, one hundred and twenty miles back from the ſea. The intermediate lands, between theſe creeks and rivers, are of an inferior quality, being of a grey ſoil, covered chiefly with pine, and a ſort of wild graſs and ſmall reeds, which afford a large range of feeding ground for ſtock both ſummer and winter. Here and there are interſperſed oak and hiccory ridges, which are of a better ſoil, and produce good crops of corn and indigo; but theſe are very little elevated above the circumjacent lands. The lands adjoining the rivers, and, for an hundred miles in a direct line from the ſea, continue a breadth from two to three or four miles, and wherever, in that diſtance, you find a piece of high land that extends to the bank of the river on one ſide, you may expect to find the low or ſwamp ground proportionably wide on the oppoſite ſide of the river. This ſeems to be an invariable rule till you come to that part where the river cuts the mountains.

The ſoil between the rivers, after you leave the ſea board and the edge of the ſwamps, at the diſtance of twenty or thirty miles, changes from a grey to a red colour, on which grows plenty of oak and hiccory, with a conſiderable intermixture of pine. In ſome places it is gravelly, but fertile, and ſo continues for a number of miles, gradually deepening the reddiſh colour of the earth, till it changes into what is called the Mulatto ſoil, conſiſting of a black mould and red earth. The compoſition is darker or lighter according as there is a larger or ſmaller proportion of the black or red earth in it. The mulatto lands are generally ſtrong, and yield large crops of wheat, tobacco, corn, &c. To this kind of land ſucceeds by turns a ſoil nearly black and very rich, on which grow large quantities of black walnut, mulberry, &c. This ſucceſſion of different ſoils continues uniform and regular, though there are ſome large veins of all the different ſoils intermixed; and what is more remarkable, this ſucceſſion, in the order mentioned, ſtretches acroſs this State nearly parallel with the ſea coaſt, and extends through the ſeveral States, nearly in the ſame direction, to the banks of Hudſon's river. In this State are produced by culture, rice, indigo, cotton, ſilk, (though not in large quantities) Indian corn, potatoes, oranges, figs, pomegranates, &c. Rice, at preſent, is the ſtaple commodity; and as a ſmall proportion only of the rice ground is under cultivation, the quantity raiſed in future muſt be much greater than at preſent. But the rapid increaſe of the inhabitants, chiefly by emigrations, whoſe attention is turned to the raiſing of tobacco, and the vaſt extent of land, with a richneſs of ſoil ſuited to the culture of that plant, renders it probable, that tobacco will ſhortly become the ſtaple of this State. Cotton was formerly planted only by the poorer claſs of people, and that only for family uſe. They planted of two kinds, the annual and the Weſt Indian; the former is low and planted every year. The balls of this are very

large, and the phlox long, ſtrong, and perfectly white. The latter is a tall perennial plant, the ſtalk ſomewhat ſhrubby, ſeveral of which riſe up from the root for ſeveral years ſucceſſively, the ſtems of the former year being killed by the winter froſts. The balls of Weſt India cotton are not quite ſo large as the other, but the phlox or wool is long, extremely fine, ſilky, and white. A plantation of this kind will laſt ſeveral years with moderate labour and care. The culture of cotton is now much more attended to; ſeveral indigo planters have converted their plantations into cotton fields. The tobacco lands are equally well adapted to wheat, which may hereafter make an important article of commerce.

On the dry plains grow large crops of ſweet potatoes, which are found to afford a wholeſome nouriſhment, and from which is made, by diſtillation, a kind of whiſky, tolerably good, but inferior to that made of rye. It is by properly macerating and waſhing this root that a ſediment or ſtarch is made, which has obtained the name of ſago, and anſwers all the purpoſes of the Indian ſago.

Moſt of the tropical fruits would flouriſh in this State with proper attention. The rice plant has been tranſplanted, and alſo the tea plant, of which ſuch immenſe quantities are conſumed in the United States, was introduced into Georgia, by Mr. Samuel Bowen, about the year 1770, from India. The ſeed was diſſeminated, and the plant now grows, without cultivation, in moſt of the fenced lots in Savannah.

From many conſiderations we may, perhaps, venture to predict, that the ſouth-weſtern part of the State, and the parts of Eaſt and Weſt Florida, which lie adjoining, will, in ſome future time, become the vineyard of America.

Remarkable Spring.] In the county of Wilkes, within a mile and a half of the town of Waſhington, is a medicinal ſpring, which riſes from a hollow tree, four or five feet in length. The inſide of the tree is covered with a coat of matter, an inch thick, and the leaves around the ſpring are incruſted with a ſubſtance as white as ſnow. It is ſaid to be a ſovereign remedy for the ſcurvy, ſcrophulous diſorders, conſumptions, gouts, and every other diſeaſe ariſing from humours in the blood. A perſon, who had a ſevere rheumatiſm in his right arm, having, in the ſpace of ten minutes, drank two quarts of the water, experienced a momentary chill, and was then thrown into a perſpiration, which, in a few hours, left him entirely free from pain, and in perfect health.

This ſpring, ſituated in a fine healthy part of the State, in the neighbourhood of Waſhington, where are excellent accommodations, will no doubt prove a pleaſant and ſalutary place of reſort for invalids from the maritime and unhealthy parts of this and the neighbouring States.

Curiosities.] One of the greateſt curioſities in this State is the bank of oyſter ſhells in the vicinity of Auguſta, 90 miles from the ſea, already deſcribed, page 139.

Commerce, Manufactures, and Agriculture.] The chief articles of export are rice, tobacco, (of which the county of Wilkes only exported, in 1788, about 3000 hogſheads) indigo, ſago, lumber of various kinds, naval ſtores, leather, deer ſkins, ſnake root, myrtle and bees wax, corn, and live ſtock. The planters and farmers raiſe large ſtocks of cattle, from 100 to 1500 head, and ſome more.

The value, in ſterling money, of the exports of Georgia, for eighteen years, from 1755 to 1772, was as follows:

	£.		£.		£.
1755 -	15,744	1761 -	15,870	1767 -	67,092
1756 -	16,776	1762 -	27,021	1768 -	92,284
1757 -	15,649	1763 -	47,551	1769 -	86,485
1758 -	8,613	1764 -	55,025	1770 -	99,383
1759 -	12,694	1765 -	73,426	1771 -	106,337
1760 -	20,852	1766 -	81,228	1772 -	121,677

Statement of the number of veſſels cleared out of Georgia, from 1755 to 1772.

	Square rigged.	Sloops.	Tons.		Square rigged.	Sloops.	Tons.
1755,	9	43	1,899	1764,	36	79	5,586
1756,	7	35	1,799	1765,	54	94	7,685
1757,	11	33	1,559	1766,	68	86	9,974
1758,	4	17	665	1767,	62	92	8,465
1759,	13	35	1,981	1768,	77	109	10,406
1760,	7	30	1,457	1769,	87	94	9,276
1761,	9	36	1,604	1770,	73	113	10,514
1762,	22	35	2,784	1771,	64	121	9,553
1763,	34	58	4,761	1772,	84	133	11,246

The amount of exports in the year ending September 30th, 1791, was 491,472 dollars. In return for the enumerated exports are imported Weſt India goods, teas, wines, various articles of clothing, and dry goods of all kinds—From the northern States, cheeſe, fiſh, potatoes, apples, cyder, and ſhoes. The imports and exports of this State are principally to and from Savannah, which has a fine harbour, and is a place where the principal commercial buſineſs of the State is tranſacted. The trade with the Indians in furs and ſkins was very conſiderable before the war, but has ſince been interrupted by the wars in which they have been involved. The manufactures of this State have hitherto been very inconſiderable, if we except indigo, ſilk, and ſago. The manner in which the indigo is cultivated and manufactured is as follows: The ground, which muſt be a ſtrong rich ſoil, is thrown into beds of ſeven or eight feet wide, after having been made very mellow, and is then raked till it is fully pulverized: the ſeed is then ſown in April, in rows at ſuch a diſtance as conveniently to admit of hoeing between them. In July the firſt crop is fit to cut, being commonly two and a half feet high; it is then thrown into vats conſtructed for the purpoſe, and ſteeped about 30 hours; after which, the liquor is drawn off into other vats, where it is *beat*, as they call it, by which means it is thrown into much ſuch a ſtate of agitation as cream is by churning. After this proceſs, lime water is put into the liquor, which cauſes the particles of indigo to ſettle at the bottom. The liquor is then drawn off, and the ſediment, which is the indigo, is taken out and ſpread on cloths, and partly dried; it is then put into boxes and preſſed, and, while it is yet ſoft, cut into ſquare pieces, which are thrown into the ſun to dry, and then put up in caſks for the market. They have commonly three cuttings a ſeaſon. A middling crop for 30 acres is 1300 pounds.

The culture of ſilk and the manufacture of ſago are at preſent but little attended to. The people in the lower part of this State manufacture none of their own clothing for themſelves or their negroes: for almoſt every article of their wearing apparel, as well as for their huſbandry tools, they depend on their merchants, who import them from Great Britain and the northern States. In the upper parts of the country, however, the

the inhabitants manufacture the chief part of their clothing from cotton, hemp, and flax.

Character and Manners.] No general character will apply to the inhabitants at large. Collected from different parts of the world, as intereſt, neceſſity, or inclination led them, their character and manners muſt, of courſe, partake of all the varieties which diſtinguiſh the ſeveral ſtates and kingdoms from whence they came. There is ſo little uniformity, that it is difficult to trace any governing principles among them. An averſion to labour is too predominant, owing in part to the relaxing heat of the climate, and partly to the want of neceſſity to excite induſtry. An open and friendly hoſpitality, particularly to ſtrangers, is an ornamental characteriſtic of a great part of this people.

Their diverſions are various. With ſome, dancing is a favourite amuſement; others take a fancied pleaſure at the gaming table, which, however, frequently terminates in the ruin of their happineſs, fortunes, and conſtitutions. In the upper counties, horſe-racing and cock-fighting prevail, two cruel diverſions imported from Virginia and the Carolinas, from whence thoſe who practiſe them principally emigrated. But the moſt rational and univerſal amuſement is hunting; and for this Georgia is particularly well calculated, as the woods abound with plenty of deer, racoons, rabbits, wild turkeys, and other game; at the ſame time the woods are ſo thin and free from obſtructions, that you may generally ride half ſpeed in chace without danger: in this amuſement pleaſure and profit are blended. The exerciſe, more than any other, contributes to health, fits for activity in buſineſs and expertneſs in war; the game alſo affords them a palatable food, and the ſkins a profitable article of commerce.

Religion.] The inhabitants of this State, who profeſs the Chriſtian religion, are of the Preſbyterian, Epiſcopalian, Baptiſt, and Methodiſt denominations. They have but a few regular miniſters among them.

Constitution.] The preſent conſtitution of this State was formed and eſtabliſhed in the year 1789, and is nearly upon the plan of the conſtitution of the United States.

State of Literature.] The literature of this State, which is yet in its infancy, is commencing on a plan which affords the moſt flattering proſpects. It ſeems to have been the deſign of the legiſlature of this State, as far as poſſible, to unite their literary concerns, and provide for them in common, that the whole might feel the benefit, and no part be neglected or left a prey to party rage, private prejudices and contentions, and conſequent ignorance, their inſeparable attendant. For this purpoſe, the literature of this State, like its policy, appears to be conſidered as one object, and in the ſame manner ſubject to common and general regulations for the good of the whole. The charter, containing their preſent ſyſtem of education, was paſſed in the year 1785. A college, with ample and liberal endowments, is inſtituted in Louiſville, a high and healthy part of the country, near the center of the State. There is alſo proviſion made for the inſtitution of an academy in each county in the State, to be ſupported from the ſame funds, and conſidered as parts and members of the ſame inſtitution, under the general ſuperintendence and direction of a preſident and board of truſtees, appointed, for their literary accompliſhments, from the different parts of the State, inveſted with the cuſtomary powers of corporations. The inſtitution thus compoſed, is denominated, "The Univerſity of Georgia."

That this body of literati, to whom is intruſted the direction of the general literature of the State, may not be ſo detached and independent, as not to poſſeſs the confidence of the State; and, in order to ſecure the attention and patronage of the principal officers of government, the governor and council, the ſpeaker of the Houſe of Aſſembly, and

and the chief juſtice of the State, are aſſociated with the board of truſtees, in ſome of the great and more ſolemn duties of their office, ſuch as making the laws, appointing the preſident, ſettling the property, and inſtituting academies. Thus aſſociated, they are denominated, "The Senate of the Univerſity," and are to hold a ſtated, annual meeting, at which the governor of the State preſides.

The Senate appoint a board of commiſſioners in each county, for the particular management and direction of the academy, and the other ſchools in each county, who are to receive their inſtructions from, and are accountable to the ſenate. The rector of each academy is an officer of the univerſity, to be appointed by the preſident, with the advice of the truſtees, and commiſſioned under the public ſeal, and is to attend with the other officers at the annual meeting of the ſenate, to deliberate on the general intereſts of literature, and to determine on the courſe of inſtruction for the year, throughout the univerſity. The preſident has the general charge and overſight of the whole, and is from time to time to viſit them, to examine into their order and performances.

The funds for the ſupport of their inſtitution are principally in lands, amounting in the whole to about fifty thouſand acres, a great part of which is of the beſt quality, and at preſent very valuable. There are alſo nearly ſix thouſand pounds ſterling in bonds, houſes and town lots in the town of Auguſta. Other public property, to the amount of 1000l. in each county, has been ſet apart for the purpoſes of building and furniſhing their reſpective academies.

INDIANS.] The Muſkogee or Creek Indians inhabit the middle part of this State, and are the moſt numerous tribe of Indians of any within the limits of the United States: their whole number ſome years ſince was 17,280, of which 5,860 were fighting men. They are compoſed of various tribes, who, after bloody wars, thought it good policy to unite and ſupport themſelves againſt the Chactaws, &c. They conſiſt of the Appalachies, Alibamas, Abecas, Cawittaws, Cooſas, Conſhacks, Cooſactees, Chacſihoomas, Natchez, Oconies, Oakmulgies, Okohoys, Pakanas, Taenſas, Talepooſas, Weetumkas, and ſome others. Their union has rendered them victorious over the Chactaws, and formidable to all the nations around them. They are a well-made, expert, hardy, ſagacious, politic people, extremely jealous of their rights, and averſe to parting with their lands. They have abundance of tame cattle and ſwine, turkeys, ducks, and other poultry; they cultivate tobacco, rice, Indian corn, potatoes, beans, peas, cabbage, melons, and have plenty of peaches, plums, grapes, ſtrawberries, and other fruits. They are faithful friends, but inveterate enemies; hoſpitable to ſtrangers, and honeſt and fair in their dealings. No nation has a more contemptible opinion of the white mens' faith in general than theſe people, yet they place great confidence in the United States, and wiſh to agree with them upon a permanent boundary, over which the ſouthern States ſhall not treſpaſs.

The country which they claim is bounded northward by about the 34th degree of latitude, and extends from the Tombeckbee, or Mobile river, to the Atlantic ocean, though they have ceded a part of this tract on the ſea coaſt, by different treaties, to the State of Georgia. Their principal towns lie in latitude 32°, and longitude 11° 20′ from Philadelphia. They are ſettled in a hilly but not mountainous country. The ſoil is fruitful in a high degree, and well watered, abounding in creeks and rivulets, from whence they are called the *Creek Indians.**

The

* General M'Gillivray, the celebrated Chief of the Creeks, is a half-blooded Indian, his mother being a woman of high rank in the Creek nation. He was ſo highly eſteemed among them, that they in a formal manner elected him their ſovereign, and veſted him with conſiderable powers. He has ſeveral ſiſters married to leading

The Chactaws, or flat heads, inhabit a very fine and extenſive tract of hilly country, with large and fertile plains intervening, between the Alabama and Miſſiſſippi rivers, in the weſtern part of this State. This nation had, not many years ago, 43 towns and villages, in three diviſions, containing 12,123 ſouls, of which 4,041 were fighting men.

The Chickaſaws are ſettled on the head branches of the Tombeckbee, Mobile, and Yazoo rivers, in the north-weſt corner of the State. Their country is an extenſive plain, tolerably well watered from ſprings, and of a pretty good ſoil. They have ſeven towns, the central one of which is in latitude 34° 23′, and longitude 14° 30′ weſt. The number of ſouls in this nation have been formerly reckoned at 1725, of which 575 were fighting men.

History.] The ſettlement of a colony between the rivers Savannah and Alatamaha was meditated in England in 1732, for the accommodation of poor people in Great Britain and Ireland, and for the further ſecurity of Carolina. Private compaſſion and public ſpirit conſpired to promote the benevolent deſign. Humane and opulent men ſuggeſted a plan of tranſporting a number of indigent families to this part of America, free of expenſe. For this purpoſe they applied to the King, George the II. and obtained from him letters patent, bearing date June 9th, 1732, for legally carrying into execution what they had generouſly projected. They called the new province Georgia, in honour of the King, who encouraged the plan. A corporation, conſiſting of twenty-one perſons, was conſtituted by the name of the truſtees for ſettling and eſtabliſhing the colony of Georgia; which was ſeparated from Carolina by the river Savannah. The truſtees having firſt ſet an example themſelves, by largely contributing to the ſcheme, undertook alſo to ſolicit benefactions from others, and to apply the money towards clothing, arming, purchaſing utenſils for cultivation, and tranſporting ſuch poor people as ſhould conſent to go over and begin a ſettlement. They did not confine their charitable views to the ſubjects of Britain alone, but wiſely opened a door for the indigent and oppreſſed proteſtants of other nations. To prevent a miſapplication of the money, it was depoſited in the bank of England.

About the middle of July, 1732, the truſtees for Georgia held their firſt meeting, and choſe Lord Percival preſident of the corporation, and ordered a common ſeal to be made. In November following, 116 ſettlers embarked for Georgia, to be conveyed thither free of expenſe, furniſhed with every thing requiſite for building and for cultivating the ſoil. James Oglethorpe, one of the truſtees, and an active promoter of the ſettlement, embarked as the head and director of theſe ſettlers. They arrived at Charleſtown early in the next year, where they met a friendly reception from the governor and council. Mr. Oglethorpe, accompanied by William Bull, ſhortly after his arrival viſited Georgia, and after reconnoitering the country, marked the ſpot on which Savannah now ſtands, as the fitteſt to begin a ſettlement. Here they accordingly began and built a ſmall fort, and a number of ſmall huts for their defence and accommodation. Such of the ſettlers as were able to bear arms were embodied, and well appointed with officers, arms, and ammunition. A treaty of friendſhip was concluded between the ſettlers and their neighbours, and the Creek Indians, and every thing wore the aſpect of peace and future proſperity.

leading men among the Creeks. This gentleman would gladly have remained a citizen of the United States; but having ſerved under the Britiſh during the late war, his property in Georgia, which was conſiderable, was confiſcated. This circumſtance induced him to retire among his friends the Creeks, ſince which he has been an active and zealous partiſan in their intereſts and politics.

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In the mean time the truſtees of Georgia had been employed in framing a plan of ſettlement, and eſtabliſhing ſuch public regulations as they judged moſt proper for anſwering the great end of the corporation. In the general plan they conſidered each inhabitant both as a planter and a ſoldier, who muſt be provided with arms and ammunition for defence, as well as with tools and utenſils for cultivation. As the ſtrength of the province was the object in view, they agreed to eſtabliſh ſuch tenures for holding lands in it as they judged moſt favourable for military eſtabliſhment. Each tract of land granted was conſidered as a military fief, for which the poſſeſſor was to appear in arms, and take the field, when called upon for the public defence. To prevent large tracts from falling, in proceſs of time, to one perſon, they agreed to grant their lands in tail male, in preference to tail general. On the termination of the eſtate in tail male, the lands were to revert to the truſt; and ſuch lands thus reverting were to be granted again to ſuch perſons, as the common council of the truſt ſhould judge moſt advantageous for the colony; only the truſtees in ſuch a caſe were to pay ſpecial regard to the daughters of ſuch perſons as had made improvements on their lots, eſpecially when not already provided for by marriage. The wives of ſuch perſons as ſhould ſurvive them, were to be, during their lives, entitled to the manſion houſe, and one half of the lands improved by their huſbands. No man was to be permitted to depart the province without licenſe. If any of the lands granted by the truſtees ſhall not be cultivated, cleared, and fenced round about with a worm fence, or pales, ſix feet high, within eighteen years from the date of the grant, ſuch part was to revert to the truſt, and the grant with reſpect to it to be void. All forfeitures for non-reſidences, high treaſons, felonies, &c. were to the truſtees for the uſe and benefit of the colony. The uſe of negroes to be abſolutely prohibited, and alſo the importation of rum. None of the coloniſts were to be permitted to trade with the Indians, but ſuch as ſhould obtain a ſpecial licenſe for that purpoſe.

Theſe were ſome of the fundamental regulations eſtabliſhed by the truſtees of Georgia, and perhaps the imagination could ſcarcely have framed a ſyſtem of rules worſe adapted to the circumſtances and ſituation of the poor ſettlers, and of more pernicious conſequence to the proſperity of the province. Yet, although the truſtees were greatly miſtaken, with reſpect to the plan of ſettlement, it muſt be acknowledged their views were generous. As the people ſent out by them were the poor and unfortunate, who were to be provided with neceſſaries at their public ſtore, they received their lands upon condition of cultivation, and, by their perſonal reſidence, of defence. Silk and wine being the chief articles intended to be raiſed, they judged negroes were not requiſite for theſe purpoſes. As the colony was deſigned to be a barrier to South Carolina againſt the Spaniſh ſettlement at Auguſtine, they imagined that negroes would rather weaken than ſtrengthen it, and that ſuch poor coloniſts would run in debt, and ruin themſelves by purchaſing them. Rum was judged pernicious to health, and ruinous to the infant ſettlement. A free trade with Indians was a thing that might have a tendency to involve the people in quarrels and troubles with the powerful ſavages, and expoſe them to danger and deſtruction. Such were probably the motives which induced thoſe humane and generous perſons to impoſe ſuch fooliſh and ridiculous reſtrictions on their colony. For by granting their ſmall eſtates in tail male, they drove the ſettlers from Georgia, who ſoon found that abundance of lands could be obtained in America upon a larger ſcale, and on much better terms. By the prohibition of negroes they rendered it impracticable in ſuch a climate to make any impreſſion on the thick foreſts, Europeans being utterly unqualified for the heavy taſk. By their diſcharging a trade with the Weſt Indies, they deprived the coloniſts of an excellent and convenient mar-

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ket for their lumber, of which they had abundance on their lands. The truſtees, like other diſtant legiſlators, who framed their regulations upon principles of ſpeculation, were liable to many errors and miſtakes; and however good their deſign, their rules were found improper and impracticable. The Carolinians plainly perceived that they would prove inſurmountable obſtacles to the progreſs and proſperity of the colony, and therefore from motives of pity began to invite the poor Georgians to come over Savannah river and ſettle in Carolina, being convinced that they could never ſucceed under ſuch impolitic and oppreſſive reſtrictions.

Beſides the large ſums of money which the truſtees had expended for the ſettlement of Georgia, the parliament had alſo granted, during the two laſt years, 36,000l. towards carrying into execution the humane purpoſe of the corporation. But after the repreſentation and memorial from the legiſlature of Carolina reached Britain, the nation conſidered Georgia to be of the utmoſt importance to the Britiſh ſettlements in America, and began to make ſtill more vigorous efforts for its ſpeedy population. The firſt embarkations of poor people from England, being collected from towns and cities, were found equally idle and uſeleſs members of ſociety abroad as they had been at home. An hardy and bold race of men, inured to rural labour and fatigue, they were perſuaded would be much better adapted both for cultivation and defence. To find men poſſeſſed of theſe qualifications, they turned their eyes to Germany and the Highlands of Scotland, and reſolved to ſend over a number of Scotch and German labourers to their infant province. When they publiſhed their terms at Inverneſs, an hundred and thirty Highlanders immediately accepted them, and were tranſported to Georgia. A township on the river Alatamaha, which was conſidered as the boundary between the Britiſh and Spaniſh territories, was allotted for the Highlanders, in which dangerous ſituation they ſettled, and built a town, which they called New Inverneſs. About the ſame time an hundred and ſeventy Germans embarked with James Oglethorpe, and were fixed in another quarter; ſo that, in the ſpace of three years, Georgia received above four hundred Britiſh ſubjects, and about an hundred and ſeventy foreigners. Afterwards, ſeveral adventurers, both from Scotland and Germany, followed their countrymen, and added farther ſtrength to the province, and the truſtees flattered themſelves with the hope of ſoon ſeeing it in a promiſing condition.

Their hopes, however, were vain: their injudicious regulations and reſtrictions, the wars in which they were involved with the Spaniards and Indians, and the frequent inſurrections among themſelves, threw the colony into a ſtate of confuſion and wretchedneſs too great for human nature to endure. Their oppreſſed ſituation was repreſented to the truſtees by repeated complaints; till at length, finding that the province languiſhed under their care, and weary with the complaints of the people, they, in the year 1752, ſurrendered their charter to the King, and it was made a royal government. In conſequence of which, his Majeſty appointed John Reynolds, an officer of the navy, governor of the province, and a legiſlature, ſimilar to that of the other royal governments in America, was eſtabliſhed in it. Great had been the expenſe which the mother country had already incurred, beſides private benefactions, for ſupporting this colony; and ſmall had been the returns yet made by it. The veſtiges of cultivation were ſcarcely perceptible in the foreſts, and in England all commerce with it was neglected and deſpiſed. At this time the whole annual exports of Georgia did not amount to 10,000l. ſterling. Though the people were now favoured with the ſame liberties and privileges enjoyed by their neighbours under the royal care, yet ſeveral years more elapſed before the value of the lands in Georgia was known, and that ſpirit

of induſtry broke out in it, which afterwards diffuſed its happy influence over the country.

In the year 1740, the Rev. George Whitefield founded an orphan houſe academy in Georgia, about 12 miles from Savannah. For the ſupport of this, in his itinerations, he collected large ſums of money of all denominations of Chriſtians, both in England and America. A part of this money was expended in erecting proper buildings to accommodate the ſtudents, and a part in ſupporting them. In 1768, it was propoſed that the orphan houſe ſhould be erected into a college; whereupon Mr. Whitefield applied to the crown for a charter. In conſequence of ſome diſpute, the affair of a charter was given up, and Mr. Whitefield made his aſſignment of the orphan houſe in truſt to the Counteſs of Huntingdon. Mr. Whitefield died at Newbury Port, in New England, September 30th, 1770, in the 56th year of his age, and was buried under the Preſbyterian church in that place.

Soon after his death, a charter was granted to his inſtitution in Georgia, and the Rev. Mr. Percy was appointed preſident of the college. Mr. Percy accordingly came over to execute his office, but, unfortunately, on the 30th of May, 1775, the orphan houſe building caught fire, and was entirely conſumed, except the two wings, which are ſtill remaining. The American war ſoon after came on, and put every thing into confuſion, and the funds have ever ſince lain in an unproductive ſtate. It is probable that the college eſtate, by the conſent of the Counteſs of Huntingdon, may hereafter be ſo incorporated with the univerſity of Georgia, as to ſubſerve the original and pious purpoſes of its founder.

From the time Georgia became a royal government, in 1752, till the peace of Paris, in 1763, ſhe ſtruggled under many difficulties, ariſing from the want of credit from friends, and the frequent moleſtations of enemies. The good effects of the peace were ſenſibly felt in the province of Georgia. From this time it began to flouriſh, under the fatherly care of Governor Wright. To form a judgement of the rapid growth of the colony, we need only attend to its exports in the foregoing table.

During the late war, Georgia was over-run by the Britiſh troops, and the inhabitants were obliged to flee into the neighbouring States for ſafety. The ſufferings and loſſes of her citizens were as great, in proportion to their numbers and wealth, as in any of the States. Since the peace, the progreſs of the population of this State has been rapid: its growth in improvement and population has been checked by the hoſtile irruptions of the Creek Indians, which have been frequent, and very diſtreſſing to the frontier inhabitants. Treaties have been held, and a ceſſation of hoſtilities agreed to between the parties; and it is expected that a permanent peace will ſoon be concluded, and tranquillity reſtored to the State.—See Hewett's Hiſt. S. Carolina and Georgia.

SPANISH

SPANISH DOMINIONS.

EAST AND WEST FLORIDA.

	Miles.		
Length	600	between	25° and 31° N. Latitude.
Breadth	130		5° and 17° W. Long. from Philadelphia.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED north, by Georgia; eaſt, by the Atlantic ocean; ſouth by the Gulf of Mexico; weſt, by the Miſſiſſippi; lying in the form of an *L*.

RIVERS, LAKES, AND SPRINGS.] Among the rivers that fall into the Atlantic, St. John's and Indian rivers are the principal. St. John's river riſes in or near a large ſwamp, in the heart of Eaſt Florida, and purſues a northern courſe in a broad, navigable ſtream, which, in ſeveral places, ſpreads into broad bays or lakes. Lake George, which is only a dilatation of the river, is a beautiful piece of water, generally about 15 miles broad, and from 15 to 20 feet deep. It is ornamented with ſeveral charming iſlands, one of which is a mere orange grove, interſperſed with magnolias and palm trees. Near Long Lake, which is two miles long and four wide, which communicates with St. John's river by a ſmall creek, is a vaſt fountain of warm or rather hot mineral water, iſſuing from a high bank on the river: it boils up with great force, forming immediately a vaſt circular baſon, capacious enough for ſeveral ſhallops to ride in, and runs with rapidity into the river, three or four hundred yards diſtance. The water is perfectly clear; and the prodigious number and variety of fiſh in it, though many feet deep, appear as plainly as though lying on a table before your eyes: the water has a diſagreeable taſte, and ſmells like bilge water. This river enters into the Atlantic, north of St. Auguſtine.

Indian river riſes a ſhort diſtance from the ſea coaſt, and runs from north to ſouth, forming a kind of inland paſſage for many miles along the coaſt.

Seguana, Apalachicola, Chatahatchi, Eſcambia, Mobile, Paſcagoula, and Pearl rivers, all riſe in Georgia, and run ſoutherly into the Gulf of Mexico.

CLIMATE.] Very little different from that of Georgia.

SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.] There are, in this country, a great variety of ſoils. The eaſtern part of it, near and about St. Auguſtine, is far the moſt unfruitful; yet even here two crops of Indian corn a year are produced. The banks of the rivers which water the Floridas, and the parts contiguous, are of a ſuperior quality, and well adapted to the culture of rice and corn, while the more interior country, which is high and pleaſant, abounds with wood of almoſt every kind; particularly white and red oak, live oak, laurel magnolia, pine hiccory, cypreſs, red and white cedar. The live oaks, though not tall, contain a prodigious quantity of timber: the trunk is generally from 12 to 20 feet in circumference, and riſes 10 or 12 feet from the earth, and then branches into four or five great limbs, which grow in nearly a horizontal direction, forming a gentle curve. "I have ſtepped," ſays Bartram,* "above 50 paces, on a

* Travels, page 85.

ſtraight line, from the trunk of one of theſe trees to the extremity of the limbs." They are ever green, and the wood almoſt incorruptible. They bear a great quantity of ſmall acorns, which is agreeable food, when roaſted, and from which the Indians extract a ſweet oil, which they uſe in cooking homminy and rice.

The laurel magnolia is the moſt beautiful among the trees of the foreſt, and is uſually 100 feet high, though ſome are much higher. The trunk is perfectly erect, riſing in the form of a beautiful column, and ſupporting a head like an obtuſe cone. The flowers are on the extremities of the branches; are large, white, and expanded like a roſe, and are the largeſt and moſt complete of any yet known; when fully expanded, they are from ſix to nine inches diameter, and have a moſt delicious fragrance. The cypreſs is the largeſt of the American trees. "I have ſeen trunks of theſe trees," ſays Bartram, "that would meaſure eight, ten, and twelve feet in diameter, for forty and fifty feet ſtraight ſhaft." The trunks make excellent ſhingles, boards, and other timber; and when hollowed, make durable and convenient canoes. "When the planters fell theſe mighty trees, they raiſe a ſtage around them, as high as to reach above the buttreſſes; on this ſtage eight or ten negroes aſcend with their axes, and fall to work round its trunk."

The intervals between the hilly part of this country are extremely rich, and produce ſpontaneouſly the fruits and vegetables that are common to Georgia and the Carolinas. But this country is rendered valuable in a peculiar manner by the extenſive ranges for cattle.

CHIEF TOWNS.] ST. AUGUSTINE, the capital of Eaſt Florida, is ſituated on the ſea coaſt, latitude 29° 45′; is of an oblong figure, and interſected by four ſtreets, which cut each other at right angles. The town is fortified with baſtions, and encloſed with a ditch: it is likewiſe defended by a caſtle, called Fort St. John, which is well appointed as to ordnance. The north and ſouth breakers, at the entrance of the harbour, form two channels, whoſe bars have eight feet water.

The principal town in Weſt Florida is PENSACOLA, latitude 30° 22′. It lies along the beach, and, like St. Auguſtine, is of an oblong form. The water approaches to the town, except for ſmall veſſels, is obſtructed by a low and ſandy ſhore. The bay, however, on which the town ſtands, forms a very commodious harbour, and veſſels may ride here ſecure from every wind. The exports from this town, conſiſting of ſkins, logwood, dying ſtuff, and ſilver dollars, amounted, while in the poſſeſſion of the Britiſh, to 63,000l. annually; the average value of imports, for three years, from Great Britain, was 97,000l.

HISTORY.] The Floridas have experienced the viciſſitudes of war, and frequently changed maſters, belonging alternately to the French and Spaniards. Weſt Florida, as far eaſt as Perdido river, was owned and occupied by the French; the remainder, and all Eaſt Florida by the Spaniards, previous to their being ceded to the Engliſh at the peace of 1763. The Engliſh divided this country into Eaſt and Weſt Florida. They were ceded by Spain to the Engliſh at the peace of 1763. During the laſt war they were reduced by the arms of his Catholic Majeſty, and guaranteed to the crown of Spain by the definitive treaty of 1783.

LOUISIANA.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the Miſſiſſippi eaſt; by the Gulf of Mexico ſouth; by New Mexico weſt; and runs indefinitely north. Under the French government Louiſiana included both ſides of the Miſſiſſippi, from its mouth to the Illinois, and back from the river, eaſt and weſt indefinitely.

RIVERS.] It is interſected by a number of fine rivers, among which are St. Francis, which empties into the Miſſiſſippi at Kappas Old Fort, navigable about 250 or 300 miles; its courſe is nearly parallel with the Miſſiſſippi, and from twenty to thirty miles diſtant from it. The Natchitoches, which empties into the Miſſiſſippi above Point Coupee, and the Adayes or Mexicano river, emptying into the Gulf of Mexico, and the River Rouge, on which, it is well known, are as rich ſilver mines as any in Mexico. This is ſuppoſed to be one principal reaſon, why the excluſive navigation of the Miſſiſſippi has been ſo much inſiſted on by Spain.

CAPITAL.] NEW ORLEANS. It ſtands on the eaſt ſide of the Miſſiſſippi, 105 miles from its mouth, in latitude 30° 2′ north. In the beginning of the laſt year it contained about 1100 houſes, ſeven eighths of which were conſumed by fire, in the ſpace of five hours, on the 19th of March, 1788. It is now faſt rebuilding. Its advantages for trade are very great. Situated on a noble river, in a fertile and healthy country, within a week's ſail of Mexico, by ſea, and as near to the Britiſh, French, and Spaniſh Weſt India iſlands, with a moral certainty of its becoming the general receptacle for the produce of that extenſive and valuable country, on the Miſſiſſippi and Ohio; theſe circumſtances are ſufficient to enſure its future growth and commercial importance.

RELIGION, GOVERNMENT, &c.] The greater part of the white inhabitants are Roman Catholics. They are governed by a Viceroy from Spain, and the number of inhabitants is unknown.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] Louiſiana is agreeably ſituated between the extremes of heat and cold. Its climate varies as it extends towards the north. The ſouthern parts, lying within the reach of the refreſhing breezes from the ſea, are not ſcorched like thoſe under the ſame latitudes in Africa; and its northern regions are colder than thoſe of Europe under the ſame parallels, with a wholeſome ſerene air. To judge of the produce to be expected from the ſoil of Louiſiana, let us turn our eyes to Egypt, Arabia Felix, Perſia, India, China, and Japan, all lying in correſponding latitudes. Of theſe, China alone has a tolerable government; and yet it muſt be acknowledged they all are, or have been, famous for their riches and fertility. From the favourableneſs of the climate, two annual crops of Indian corn may be produced; and the ſoil, with little cultivation, would furniſh grain of every kind in the greateſt abundance. Their timber is as fine as any in the world, and the quantities of live oak, aſh, mulberry, walnut, cherry, cypreſs, and cedar, are aſtoniſhing. The neighbourhood of the Miſſiſſippi, beſides, furniſhes the richeſt fruits in great variety; the ſoil is particularly adapted for hemp, flax, and tobacco; and indigo is at this time a ſtaple commodity, which commonly yields the planter three or four cuttings a year. In a word, whatever is rich and rare in the moſt deſirable climates in Europe, ſeems to be the ſpontaneous production of this delightful country. The Miſſiſſippi and the neighbouring lakes furniſh in great plenty ſeveral ſorts of fiſh, particularly perch, pike, ſturgeon, and eels.

In the northern part of Louiſiana, forty-five miles below the mouth of the Ohio river, on the weſt bank of the Miſſiſſippi, a ſettlement is commencing, conducted by Colonel Morgan of New Jerſey, under the patronage of the Spaniſh king. The ſpot on which the city is propoſed to be built is called New Madrid, after the capital of Spain, and is in north latitude 36° 30′.

The limits of the new city of Madrid are to extend four miles ſouth, and two miles weſt from the river, ſo as to croſs a beautiful, living, deep lake, of the pureſt ſpring water, one hundred yards wide, and ſeveral miles in length, emptying itſelf, by a conſtant rapid narrow ſtream, through the center of the city. The banks of this lake, which is called St. Annis, are high, beautiful, and pleaſant; the waters deep, clear, and ſweet; the bottom a clear ſand, free from woods, ſhrubs, or other vegetables, and well ſtored with fiſh. On each ſide of this delightful lake ſtreets are laid out, 100 feet wide, and a road to be continued round it, of the ſame breadth; and the ſtreets are directed to be preſerved for ever, for the health and pleaſure of the citizens. A ſtreet 120 feet wide, on the banks of the Miſſiſſippi, is laid out; and the trees are directed to be preſerved for the ſame purpoſe. Twelve acres, in a central part of the city, are to be reſerved in like manner, to be ornamented, regulated, and improved by the magiſtracy of the city for public walks; and forty half acre lots for other public uſes; and one lot of twelve acres for the king's uſe.

New Madrid, from its local ſituation and adventitious privileges, is in proſpect of being the great emporium of the weſtern country, unleſs the free navigation of the Miſſiſſippi ſhould be opened to the United States. And even ſhould this deſired event take place, which probably will not without a rupture with Spain, this muſt be a place of great trade. For here will naturally center the immenſe quantities of produce that will be borne down the Illinois, the Miſſiſſippi, the Ohio, and their various branches; and if the carriers can find as good a market for their cargoes here, as at New Orleans or the Weſt Indies, and can procure the articles they deſire, they will gladly ſave themſelves the difficulties and dangers of navigating the long Miſſiſſippi.

The country in the vicinity of this intended city is repreſented as excellent, in many parts beyond deſcription. The natural growth conſiſts of mulberry, locuſt, ſaſſafras, walnut, hiccory, oak, aſh, dog-wood, &c. with one or more grape vines running up almoſt every tree; the grapes yield, from experiment, good red wine in plenty, and with little labour. In ſome of the low grounds grow large cypreſs trees. The country is interſperſed with prairies and now and then a cane patch of 100, and ſome of 1000 acres. Theſe prairies have no trees on them, but are fertile in graſs, flowering plants, ſtrawberries, and, when cultivated, produce good crops of wheat, barley, Indian corn, flax, hemp, and tobacco, and are eaſily tilled. The climate is ſaid to be favourable for health and to the culture of fruits of various kinds, and particularly for garden vegetables. Iron and lead mines and ſalt ſprings, it is aſſerted, are found in ſuch plenty as to afford an abundant ſupply of theſe neceſſary articles. The banks of the Miſſiſſippi, for many leagues in extent, commencing about twenty miles above the mouth of Ohio, are a continued chain of lime-ſtone. A fine tract of high, rich, level land, S.W.W. and N.W. of New Madrid, about twenty-five miles wide, extends quite to the River St. Francis.

It has been ſuppoſed by ſome that all ſettlers who go beyond the Miſſiſſippi, will be for ever loſt to the United States. There is, I believe, little danger of this, provided they are not provoked to withdraw their friendſhip. The emigrants will be made up of the citizens of the United States. They will carry along with them their manners and cuſtoms, their habits of government, religion and education; and as they are to be indulged

dulged with religious freedom, and with the privilege of making their own laws, and of conducting education upon their own plans, theſe American habits will undoubtedly be cheriſhed. If ſo they will be Americans in fact, though nominally the ſubjects of Spain.

It is true Spain will draw a revenue from them, but in return they will enjoy peculiar commercial advantages, the benefit of which will be experienced by the United States, and perhaps be an ample compenſation for the loſs of ſo many citizens as may migrate thither. In ſhort, this ſettlement, if conducted with judgement and prudence, may be mutually ſerviceable both to Spain and the United States; it may prevent jealouſies; leſſen national prejudices; promote religious toleration; preſerve harmony, and be a medium of trade reciprocally advantageous.

Beſides, it is well known that empire has been travelling from eaſt to weſt. Probably her laſt and broadeſt ſeat will be America. Here the ſciences and the arts of civilized life are to receive their higheſt improvements: here civil and religious liberty are to flouriſh, unchecked by the cruel hand of civil or eccleſiaſtical tyranny: here genius, aided by all the improvements of former ages, is to be exerted in humanizing mankind, in expanding and enriching their minds with religious and philoſophical knowledge, and in planning and executing a form of government, which ſhall involve all the excellencies of former governments, with as few of their defects as is conſiſtent with the imperfection of human affairs, and which ſhall be calculated to protect and unite, in a manner conſiſtent with the natural rights of mankind, the largeſt empire that ever exiſted. Elevated with theſe proſpects, which are not merely the viſions of fancy, we cannot but anticipate the period, as not far diſtant, when the American Empire will comprehend millions of ſouls weſt of the Miſſiſſippi. Judging upon probable grounds, the Miſſiſſippi was never deſigned as the weſtern boundary of the American empire. The God of Nature never intended that ſome of the beſt part of his earth ſhould be inhabited by the ſubjects of a monarch 4000 miles from them. And may we not venture to predict, that, when the rights of mankind ſhall be more fully known, (and the knowledge of them is faſt increaſing both in Europe and America) the power of European potentates will be confined to Europe, and their preſent American dominions become, like the United States, free, ſovereign, and independent empires.

It ſeems to depend on a timely adoption of a wiſe and liberal policy on the part of Spain, whether or not there ſhall be a ſpeedy revolution in her American colonies. It is aſſerted by the beſt informed on the ſubject, that there are not a hundred Spaniſh families in all Louiſiana and Weſt Florida; the bulk of the inhabitants are French people, who are inimical to the Spaniards, and emigrants from the United States, and a few Engliſh, Scots, Dutch, and Iriſh. This was the caſe in 1791; and as all emigrations to this country have ſince been, and will probably in future be from the United States, and theſe emigrations are numerous, the time will ſoon come, when the Anglo Americans in this country will far exceed the number of all other nations.

The wretched and wicked policy of New Orleans, unleſs changed, will haſten a revolution in the Spaniſh colonies. So long as the governor can dictate laws and diſpenſe with them at his pleaſure, and create monopolies in trade for his own and his favourites' advantage, as is now the caſe, there can be no ſtability in the commerce of this place. The excluſive right, even of ſupplying the market with freſh beef, pork, veal, and mutton, is monopolized. No farmer or planter is allowed to kill his own beef, ſwine, calf, or ſheep, and ſend it to market; he muſt ſell it to the King's butcher, as he is called, at the price he is pleaſed to give; and this man retails it out at a certain price agreed upon by the governor, in juſt ſuch pieces as he thinks proper,

through a window or grate. Aſk for a roaſting piece, and he will give you a ſhin or briſket of beef; point to the piece you want, and he will tell you it is engaged to your ſuperior. From ſimilar conduct, turkies now ſell for four or five dollars a piece, which, under the French government, were in abundance for half a dollar. The monopoly of flour is, if poſſible, on ſtill a worſe footing for the inhabitant: and the tobacco inſpection yet more diſcouraging to the planter. The governor, or the crown, as it is called, muſt have an undefined advantage in every thing. Hence all are ripe for a revolution the moment one ſhall offer with proſpect of being ſupported, whether it ſhall come from the United States, England, France, or internally from the inhabitants.

It is ſaid to be the fixed reſolution of the Britiſh miniſtry to ſeize on New Orleans, in the firſt inſtance, in caſe of a rupture with Spain, as a neceſſary prelude to an attack on the Spaniſh poſſeſſions in the Weſt Indies and on the main: it has been their policy uniformly, and orders have been given accordingly at different times. For this purpoſe every bend of the river, every bay and harbour on the coaſt, have been ſurveyed and ſounded with the utmoſt exactneſs, and all of them are better known to the Britiſh than to the Spaniards themſelves.

Whilſt the United States were engaged in the revolution war againſt England, the Spaniards attacked and poſſeſſed themſelves of all the Engliſh poſts and ſettlements on the Miſſiſſippi, from the Iberville up to the Yazoos river, including the Natchez country; and by virtue of this conqueſt are now peopling and governing an extent three degrees north of the United States' ſouth boundary, claiming the excluſive navigation of the other. This alone will probably be deemed ſufficient cauſe for the United States to unite with any other power againſt Spain, the firſt opportunity, as both of right, they conceive, belong to them by treaty. It is aſſerted that the Kentucky country alone could, in one week, raiſe a ſufficient force to conquer all the Spaniſh poſſeſſions on the Miſſiſſippi; whilſt one thouſand men would be equal to defend the whole country of New Orleans and Louiſiana from any enemy approaching it by ſea. The greater a hoſtile fleet entering the Miſſiſſippi, the greater and more certain would be their deſtruction if oppoſed by men of knowledge and reſolution.*

HISTORY.

* The following extract of a letter from a gentleman at New Orleans, dated September, 1790, contains much uſeful information, in confirmation of the above.

"When I left you and my other friends in Baltimore, laſt year, I promiſed to write to you by every opportunity, and to communicate to you every information which I could derive from my excurſion to the Ohio, down that beautiful ſtream, during my ſtay at Kentucky and the weſtern poſts, my viſit to the Illinois and the different ſettlements on the Miſſiſſippi, from thence downward to New Orleans.

"As I have devoted more than twelve months in making this tour, with the determination to judge for myſelf, and to give you and my other friends information to be depended upon, regarding the climate, ſoil, natural productions, population, and other advantages and diſadvantages, which you may depend on finding in the country I have paſſed through, I cannot, within the narrow bounds of this letter, comply with my intention, and your wiſh, but I muſt beg of you to reſt ſatisfied with what follows:

* * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * *

"Nearly oppoſite to Louiſville is a ſtockade fort, garriſoned by two companies of the 1ſt United States regiment. What uſe this poſt of, I never could learn—It is a mere hoſpital in the ſummer ſeaſon, and the grave of brave men, who might be uſefully employed elſewhere. Fort Harmar is as remarkably healthful; ſo is the New England ſettlement at Muſkingum; and I think the Miami ſettlement will be healthful when the people have the comforts of good living about them; at preſent they are the pooreſt among the poor emigrants to this country, and not the beſt managers. Below the falls, on the weſt ſide, is a miſerable ſettlement, called Clarkſville, frequently flooded, and compoſed of people who cannot better themſelves at preſent, or I ſuppoſe they would not continue here. From hence I made an excurſion by land to Poſt Vincent, diſtant about 100 miles: the fort here is garriſoned by two companies, at great expenſe, but little uſe. Not liking the country on account of the many hoſtile neighbouring Indians, I haſtened out of it, and went with a party of

HISTORY.] The Miſſiſſippi, on which the fine country of Louiſiana is ſituated, was firſt diſcovered by Ferdinand de Soto, in 1541. Monſieur de la Salle was the firſt who traverſed it. He, in the year 1682, having paſſed down to the mouth of the Miſſiſſippi, and ſurveyed the adjacent country, returned to Canada, from whence he took paſſage to France.

From the flattering accounts which he gave of the country, and the conſequential advantages that would accrue from ſettling a colony in thoſe parts, Louis XIV. was induced to eſtabliſh a company for the purpoſe. Accordingly a ſquadron of four veſſels, amply provided with men and proviſions, under the command of Monſieur de la Salle, embarked, with an intention of ſettling near the mouth of the Miſſiſſippi. But he unintentionally ſailed a hundred leagues to the weſtward of it, where he attempted to eſtabliſh a colony; but through the unfavourableneſs of the climate, moſt of his men miſerably periſhed, and he himſelf was villainouſly murdered, not long after, by two of his own men. Monſieur Ibberville ſucceeded him in his laudable attempts. He, after two ſucceſsful voyages, died while preparing for a third. Crozat ſucceeded him; and in 1712, the king gave him Louiſiana. This grant continued but a ſhort time after the death of Louis XIV. In 1763, Louiſiana was ceded to the King of Spain, to whom it now belongs.

of Frenchmen to Kaſkaſkias, in the Illinois country, and viſited Prairie des Rochers, St. Philip's, Belle Fontaine, and Kahokia; from whence making up a party to purſue ſome hoſtile Kukapoos, and ſteering due eaſt, we fell on the head waters of the Kaſkaſkia river, which we croſſed at ſome diſtance. This is a delightful country! On our return to Kahokia, I croſſed over to St. Louis, on the Spaniſh ſide, but I did not proceed far into the country; what I did ſee I did not like, and therefore bought a canoe and went down the Miſſiſſippi to St. Genevieve and the Saline. Not being pleaſed with theſe places, nor the country around, I embraced the company of ſome French hunters and traders going towards the St. Francis river, in a ſouth-weſt direction from St. Genevieve. After travelling thirty miles nearly, I came to a ſweet country; here meeting with ſome Shawaneſe Indians going to l'Ance la Graiſe and New Madrid, I made them a ſmall preſent, and engaged them to eſcort me there, which they did through a country fine and beautiful beyond deſcription; variegated by ſmall hills, beautiful timber, and extenſive plains of luxuriant ſoil. Here the Spaniards are building a handſome fort, to encourage the ſettlement by Americans, on a plan of Colonel Morgan's, of New Jerſey; which, had it been purſued, as propoſed by him, would have made this the firſt in all the weſtern country; but they have deviated from it, ſo much as to diſcourage the ſettlement, and many have left it. The banks of the Miſſiſſippi overflow above and below the town, but the country back from the river is incomparably beautiful and fine. I made a tour back to the river St. Francis, diſtant about twenty-eight or thirty miles, and returned by another route more ſouthward, to my great ſatisfaction. Expreſſing to ſome of the people, at New Madrid, my ſurpriſe at Colonel S***'s account of this country, I was told that he never went 100 yards back from the river, either on the Ohio or Miſſiſſippi, except once, and that was at l'Ance la Graiſe, where a horſe was provided for him, and he rode fifteen or twenty miles, and returned ſo enraptured with the country, that he would not liſten to the propoſed ſettlement of New Madrid being fixed at any other place; and he actually applied to Colonel Morgan for forty ſurveys, moſt of which were executed; and he entered into obligations for ſettlements thereof; but the Colonel refuſing to grant him 300 acres of the town lots, for a farm, as it would be injurious to other applicants of equal merit, S*** ſwore he would do every thing in his power to injure Morgan and the ſettlement, which it ſeems he has endeavoured to do, to the ruin, however, of his own reputation. I am ſatisfied that the failure of this ſettlement is only owing to a narrow policy in the Spaniſh government, or to a deviation from their firſt plan, and not from the cauſes repreſented by its enemies. This is the country, of all others, I have ſeen, which I would wiſh to ſettle in, had Col. Morgan's plan been adopted, or carried into execution; and thouſands among the beſt people of the weſtern country would already have been ſettled here. Why it was not, I know not; but I am told jealouſy of his ſucceſs was the cauſe.

" After continuing two months in this delightful country, I proceeded to the Natchez, which has already become a conſiderable ſettlement, and is now under the government of Don Gayoſo, a man greatly beloved; but the Spaniſh government, though I think it liberal at preſent, will not long agree with American ideas of liberty and juſtice; and a revolution is now in embryo, which a ſmall matter will blow to a flame; and New Orleans itſelf will be at the mercy of new ſubjects, if joined by a handful of the Kentucky people.

MEXICO, *or* NEW SPAIN.

Situation and Extent.

	Miles.		
Length	2100	between	9° and 40° N. Latitude
Breadth	1600		18° and 50° W. Longitude

Boundaries.] BOUNDED north, by unknown regions; eaſt, by Louiſiana, and the Gulf of Mexico; ſouth, by the Iſthmus of Darien, which ſeparates it from Terra Firma in South America; weſt, by the Pacific ocean.

Grand Diviſions.] This vaſt country is divided as follows:

Grand Diviſions.	Audiences.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.
Old Mexico.	Galicia,	7	Guadalaxara
	Mexico,	9	Mexico, N. lat. 9° 26′
	Guatimala,	6	Guatimala.*
New Mexico Proper.	Apacheira		St. Fe, N. lat. 36° 30′
	Sonora		
California, on the weſt, a peninſula.			St. Juan.

Rivers, Lakes, and Fountains.] The land is in great part abrupt and mountainous, covered with thick woods, and watered with large rivers. Some of theſe run into the Gulf of Mexico, and others into the Pacific ocean. Among the firſt are, Alvarado, Coatzacualco, and Tabaſco. The Alvarado has its principal ſource in the mountains of the Zapotecas, and after making a circuit through the province of Mazaltan, and receiving other ſmaller rivers and ſtreams, is diſcharged into the Gulf by three navigable mouths, at thirty miles diſtance from Vera Cruz. The river Coatzacualco, which is alſo navigable, empties into the ocean near the country of Onohualco. The river Tabaſco begins its courſe from the mountains, which ſeparate the dioceſe of Chiapan from that of Guatimala, and afterwards that of Onohualco, where it runs into the ſea.

Amongſt the rivers which run into the Pacific ocean, the principal is the river Guadalaxara, or Great River. It takes its riſe in the mountains of the valley of Toloccan, waters the country of Tonollan, where at preſent ſtands the city of Guadalaxara, the capital of New Gallicia; and after running a courſe of more than 600 miles, diſcharges itſelf into the ocean, in the latitude of 22 degrees.

There are ſeveral lakes, which do not leſs embelliſh the country than give convenience to the commerce of the people. The lakes of Nicaragua, Chapallan, and Pazquaro, are among the largeſt. The lakes Tetzcuco and Chalco occupy a great part of the Vale of Mexico, which is the fineſt tract of country in New Spain. The waters of Chalco are ſweet, thoſe of Tetzcuco are brackiſh. A canal unites them. The lower lake, Tetzcuco, was formerly as much as 20 miles long and 17 broad, and lying at the bottom of the vale, is the reſervoir of all the waters from the ſurrounding

* This city was ſwallowed up by an earthquake, June 7th, 1773, when 8000 families inſtantly periſhed. New Guatimala is well inhabited.

mountains. The city of Mexico ſtands on an iſland in this lake. Theſe two lakes, whoſe circumference was not leſs than 90 miles, repreſented the figure of a camel. At preſent the extent of theſe lakes is much leſs, for the Spaniards have diverted into new channels many rivers which formerly ran into them. All the water which is collected there is at firſt ſweet, and becomes ſalt afterwards, from the nitrous bed of the lake where it is received. M. De Bomare ſays, that the ſalt of the Mexican lake may proceed from the waters of the ocean in the north being filtered through the earth. But this is truly a groſs error, becauſe that lake is 180 miles diſtant from the ocean; beſides, the bed of this lake is ſo elevated, that it has at leaſt one mile of perpendicular height above the level of the ſea. The lake of Tocktlan makes a fine proſpect, and its banks a moſt delightful dwelling.

In this country are interſperſed many fountains, of different qualities. There are an infinity of nitrous, ſulphureous, vitriolic, and aluminous mineral waters, ſome of which ſpring out ſo hot, that in a ſhort time any kind of fruit or animal food is boiled in them. There are alſo petrifying waters, namely, thoſe of Tehuacan, a city about 120 miles ſouth-eaſt from Mexico; thoſe of the ſpring of Pucuaro, in the States of the Conte di Miravalles, in the kingdom of Michuacan, and that of a river in the province of the Queleni. With the waters of Pucuaro they make little white ſmooth ſtones, not diſpleaſing to the taſte; ſcrapings from which taken in broth, or in gruel made of Indian corn, are moſt powerful diaphoretics, and are uſed with remarkable ſucceſs in various kinds of fevers. The citizens of Mexico, during the time of their kings, ſupplied themſelves with water from the great ſpring of Chapoltepec, which was conveyed to the city by an aqueduct.

We might here deſcribe the ſtupendous falls or caſcades of ſeveral rivers, particularly that in the river Guadalaxara, 15 miles ſouth of that city; and the famous Ponti di Dio, which is a natural bridge thrown over the deep river Atoyaque, 100 miles ſouth-eaſt of Mexico, over which coaches and carriages conveniently paſs.

Climate.] The climate of this extenſive country is various. The maritime parts are hot, and for the moſt part moiſt and unhealthy. Their heat, which occaſions ſweat even in January, is owing to the perfect flatneſs of the coaſts compared with the inland country; or from the mountains of ſand that gather upon the ſhore. Lands which are very high, or very near to high mountains, which are perpetually covered with ſnow, are cold; there has been white froſts and ice, in the dog-days. All the other inland parts which are the moſt populous, enjoy a climate mild and benign, that they neither feel the rigour of winter, nor the heats of ſummer. No other fire than the ſun's rays is neceſſary to give warmth in winter; no other relief is wanted in the ſeaſons of heat than the ſhade; the ſame clothing which covers a man in the dog-days, defends him in January; and the animals ſleep all the year under the open ſky.

The mildneſs and agreeableneſs of the climate under the torrid zone is the effect of ſeveral natural cauſes, entirely unknown to the ancients, who believed it uninhabitable; and not well underſtood by ſome moderns, by whom it is eſteemed unfavourable to thoſe who live in it. The purity of the atmoſphere, the ſmaller obliquity of the ſolar rays, and the longer ſtay of this luminary upon the horizon in winter, in compariſon with other regions farther removed from the equator, concur to leſſen the cold, and to prevent all that horror which diſfigures the face of nature in other climes. During that ſeaſon, a ſerene ſky, and the natural delights of the country are enjoyed; whereas under the frigid, and even for the moſt part under the temperate zones, the clouds rob man of the proſpect of heaven, and the ſnow buries the beautiful productions

tions of the earth. No leſs cauſes combine to temper the heat of ſummer. The plentiful ſhowers which frequently water the earth after mid-day, from April or May, to September or October; the high mountains continually loaded with ſnow, ſcattered here and there through the country; the cool winds which breathe from them in that ſeaſon; and the ſhorter ſtay of the ſun upon the horizon, compared with the circumſtances of the temperate zone, transform the ſummer of thoſe happy countries into a cool and cheerful ſpring.

But the agreeableneſs of the climate is counterbalanced by thunder ſtorms, which are frequent in ſummer, and by earthquakes, which at all ſeaſons are felt, although with leſs danger than terror.

Mountains.] The fire kindled in the bowels of the earth by the ſulphureous and bituminous materials, has made vents for itſelf in ſome of the mountains, or volcanos, from whence flames are often ſeen to iſſue, and aſhes and ſmoke. There are five mountains in the diſtrict of the Mexican empire, where, at different times, this dreadful phenomenon has been obſerved.

Pojauhtecal, called by the Spaniards, Volcan de Orizaba, began to ſend forth ſmoke in the year 1545, and continued to do ſo for twenty years; but after that, for the ſpace of more than two centuries, there has not been obſerved the ſmalleſt ſign of burning. This celebrated mountain, which is of a conical figure, is indiſputably the higheſt land in all Mexico; and, on account of its height, is the firſt land deſcried by ſeamen who are ſteering that way, at the diſtance of fifty leagues. It is higher than the peak of Teneriffe. Its top is always covered with ſnow, and its border adorned with large cedars, pine, and other trees, of valuable wood, which make the proſpect of it every way beautiful. It is diſtant from the capital upwards of ninety miles to the eaſtward.

The Popocatepu and Tztaceihuatl, which lie near each other, thirty-three miles ſouth-eaſt from Mexico, are alſo of a ſurpriſing height. Popocatepu, for which they have ſubſtituted the name Volcan, has a mouth or vent more than half a mile wide, from which, in the time of the Mexican kings, it frequently emitted flames; and in the laſt century many times threw out great quantities of aſhes upon the places adjacent; but in this century hardly any ſmoke has been obſerved. Tztaceihuatl, or Seirra Nevada, threw out alſo at ſome times ſmoke and aſhes. Both mountains have tops always covered with ſnow, in ſuch quantities, as to ſupply, with what precipitates on the neighbouring rocks, the cities of Mexico, Gilopoli, Cholula, and the adjoining places, to the diſtance of forty miles from theſe mountains, where an incredible quantity is yearly conſumed in cooling and congealing liquors.

The mountain Juruyo, ſituated in the valley of Urecho, is a great curioſity. Before the year 1760, there was nothing of it but a ſmall hill, where there was a ſugar plantation. But on the 29th of September, 1760, it burſt with furious ſhocks, and entirely ruined the ſugar works, and the neighbouring village of Guacana; and from that time has continued to emit fire and burning rocks, which have formed themſelves into three high mountains, whoſe circumference was nearly ſix miles in 1766, according to the account communicated by the governor of that province, who was an eye-witneſs of the fact. The aſhes, at the irruption, were forced to the almoſt incredible diſtance of 150 miles. In the city of Valadolid, 60 miles diſtant, it rained aſhes in ſuch abundance that they were obliged to ſweep the yards of the houſes two or three times during the day.

Beſides theſe there are others alſo, which, though not burning mountains, are yet of great celebrity for their height.

Stones

STONES AND MINERALS.] The mountains of Mexico abound in ores of every kind of metal, and a great variety of foſſils. The Mexicans found gold in various parts of their country: they gathered this precious metal chiefly in grains among the ſand of the river. Silver was dug out of the mines of Ilachco, and others; but it was not ſo much prized by them as it is by other nations. Since the conqueſt, ſo many ſilver mines have been diſcovered in that country, eſpecially in the provinces which are to the north-weſt of the capital, it is quite impoſſible to enumerate them. Of copper, they had two ſorts; one hard, which they uſed inſtead of iron to make axes, hatchets, mattocks, and other inſtruments of war and agriculture; the other flexible, for making of baſons, pots, and other veſſels. Of tin, they made money, and lead was ſold at market. There are alſo mines of iron, quickſilver, and in many places mines of ſulphur, alum, vitriol, cinnabar, ochre, and a white earth ſtrongly reſembling white lead. Of amber and aſphaltum, or bitumen of Judea, there was and ſtill is great abundance on both coaſts; amber was uſed to ſet in gold for ornaments; aſphaltum was employed in certain incenſe offerings.

With reſpect to precious ſtones there were, and ſtill are, diamonds, though few in number; amethyſts, cats eyes, turquoiſes, cornelians, and ſome green ſtones reſembling emeralds, and not much inferior to them. There are quarries of jaſper, and marble of different colours, in the mountains of Calpolalpan. The ſtone Tetzontli is generally of a dark red colour, pretty hard, porous, and light, unites moſt firmly with lime and ſand, and is therefore more in demand than any other, for the buildings of the capital, where the foundation is marſhy. There are beſides, entire mountains of loadſtone, and among others one very conſiderable between Tcoiltylan and Chilapan, in the country of the Cohuixcas.

PRODUCTIONS.] However plentiful and rich the mineral kingdom of Mexico may be, the vegetable kingdom is ſtill more various and abundant. The celebrated Dr. Hernandez, the Pliny of New Spain, deſcribes, in his Natural Hiſtory, about twelve hundred plants, natives of that country; but as his deſcription is confined to medicinal plants, he has hardly compriſed one half of what provident nature has produced there for the benefit of mankind. With regard to the other vegetables, ſome are eſteemed for their flowers, ſome for their fruit, ſome for their leaves, ſome for their roots, ſome for their trunk or their wood, and others for their gum, reſin, oil, or juice. Many flowers which embelliſh the meads, and adorn the gardens of the Mexicans, are worthy to be mentioned (would our limits permit) either on account of the ſingular beauty of their colours, their exquiſite fragrance, or the extraordinarineſs of their form.

The fruits which are original in Mexico, are the pine-apple, plums, dates, and a great variety of others. There are alſo many others that are not original in the country, viz. water-melons, apples, peaches, quinces, apricots, pears, pomegranates, figs, black cherries, walnuts, almonds, olives, cheſnuts, and grapes.

The cocoa-nut, vainilla, chia, great pepper, tomati, the pepper of Tabaſco, and cotton, are very common with the Mexicans. Wheat, barley, peas, beans, and rice, have been ſucceſsfully cultivated in this country.

With reſpect to plants which yield profitable reſins, gums, oils, or juices, the country of Mexico is ſingularly fertile. Of the elaſtic gum, the Mexicans make their foot-balls, which, though heavy, rebound more than thoſe filled with air.

ANIMALS.] The animal kingdom of Mexico is not very well known. Of the quadrupeds, ſome are ancient and ſome are modern; thoſe are called modern which were tranſported from the Canaries and Europe into that country in the ſixteenth century: ſuch

ſuch are horſes, aſſes, bulls, ſheep, goats, hogs, dogs, and cats, which have all multiplied. Of the ancient quadrupeds, by which is meant thoſe that from time immemorial have been in that country, ſome were common to both the continents of Europe and America, ſome peculiar to the new world, others natives only of the kingdom of Mexico. The ancient quadrupeds common to Mexico and the old continents are, lions, tygers, wild cats, bears, wolves, foxes, the common ſtags and white ſtags, bucks, wild goats, badgers, pole cats, weaſles, martins, ſquirrels, rabbits, hares, otters, and rats. There are many other kinds of animals in this country, too numerous to mention.

Birds of Mexico.] Their prodigious number, their variety, and many valuable qualities, have occaſioned ſome authors to obſerve, that as Africa is the country of beaſts, ſo Mexico is the country of birds. It is ſaid there are 200 ſpecies peculiar to that kingdom. There are a prodigious number of geeſe; at leaſt, twenty ſpecies of ducks; ſeveral kinds of herons, with vaſt numbers of ſwans, water rails, divers, king fiſhers, pelicans, and others. The multitude of ducks is ſometimes ſo great, as quite to cover the fields, and to appear at a diſtance like flocks of ſheep. The pelican is remarkable in aſſiſting the ſick or wounded of its own ſpecies, a circumſtance which the Americans ſometimes take advantage of, to procure fiſh without trouble. They take a live pelican, break its wing, and after tying it to a tree, conceal themſelves in the neighbourhood; there they watch the coming of the other pelicans with their proviſions, and as ſoon as they ſee theſe throw up the fiſh from their pouch, run and ſeize them, and after leaving a little for the captive bird, they carry off the reſt.

In the other claſſes of birds, ſome are valuable on account of their fleſh, ſome for their plumage, and ſome for their ſong; while others engage our attention by their extraordinary inſtinct, or ſome other remarkable quality: of birds which afford a wholeſome and agreeable food, there are more than ſeventy ſpecies. There are thirty-five ſpecies of Mexican birds that are ſuperlatively beautiful. The talking birds, or thoſe which imitate the human voice, are to be found in equal abundance in this country; of theſe the parrot holds the firſt place.

Fish.] The fiſh common to both oceans are, whales, dolphins, ſword fiſh, ſaw fiſh, tiburones, manitis, mantas, porpoiſes, bonatas, cod, mullets, thornbacks, barbels, flying fiſh, ſhad, lobſters, ſoles, and many others, together with ſeveral ſpecies of tortoiſes, polypus, crabs, ſpunges, &c. The Mexican gulf, beſides thoſe already mentioned, affords ſturgeons, pike, congers, cuttle fiſh, anchovies, carp, eels, nautiluſes, turbot, &c. In the Pacific ocean, beſides thoſe common to the two ſeas, there are ſalmon, tunnies, ſea ſcorpions, herrings, and others. In the lakes and rivers are three or four kinds of white fiſh, carp, mullet, trout, barbels, eels, and many others.

Shells have been found in prodigious numbers, and of great variety, and ſome of them of extraordinary beauty, eſpecially thoſe of the Pacific ocean. Pearls alſo have been fiſhed, at different times, along all the coaſts of that ocean.

Government and Religion.] The civil government of Mexico is adminiſtered by tribunals, called audiences. In theſe courts the viceroy of the King of Spain preſides. His employment is the greateſt truſt and power his Catholic Majeſty has at his diſpoſal, and is perhaps the richeſt government entruſted to any ſubject in the world. The viceroy continues in office three years.

The clergy are extremely numerous in Mexico. The prieſts, monks, and nuns, of all orders, make a fifth part of the white inhabitants, both here and in other parts of Spaniſh America.

Chief

CHIEF TOWNS, AND COMMERCE.] MEXICO is the oldeſt city in America of which we have any account. The Abbe Clavigero, who is our authority for the preceding account of this country, dates its foundation as far back as 1325. It is ſituated in the charming vale of Mexico, on ſeveral ſmall iſlands, in lake Tetzcuco, in North latitude 19° 26′ and 276° 34′ Weſt longitude from Ferro. This vale is ſurrounded with lofty and verdant mountains, and formerly contained no leſs than forty eminent cities, beſides villages and hamlets. The city is ſubject to frequent inundations, as is eaſily accounted for from its local ſituation, the lake in which it ſtands being the reſervoir of the waters flowing from the neighbouring mountains.

Concerning the ancient population of this city there are various opinions. The hiſtorians moſt to be relied on ſay that it was nearly nine miles in circumference, and contained upwards of 60,000 houſes, containing each from four to ten inhabitants. Some hiſtorians reckon 120,000 and ſome 130,000 houſes. By a late accurate enumeration, made by the magiſtrates and prieſts, it appears that the preſent number of inhabitants exceeds 200,000. We may form ſome idea of its populouſneſs from the quantity of pulque* and tobacco which are daily conſumed in it, aſcertained from the cuſtom houſe books, February 23, 1775. Every day upwards of 190,000 pounds of pulque are carried into the city, which is almoſt ſolely conſumed by the Indians and Mulattoes, who drink this beverage. The tax upon it amounts annually to about 280,000 crowns. The daily conſumption of tobacco is reckoned at 1250 crowns.

The greateſt curioſity in the city of Mexico is their floating gardens. When the Mexicans, about the year 1325, were ſubdued by the Colhuan and Tepanecan nations, and confined to the ſmall iſlands in the lake, having no land to cultivate, they were taught by neceſſity to form moveable gardens, which floated on the lake. Their conſtruction is very ſimple. They take willows and the roots of marſh plants, and other materials which are light, and twiſt them together, and ſo firmly unite them as to form a ſort of platform, which is capable of ſupporting the earth of the garden. Upon this foundation they lay the light buſhes which float on the lake, and over ſpread the mud and dirt which they draw up from the bottom of the lake. Their regular figure is quadrangular; their length and breadth various, but generally about eight rods long and three wide; and their elevation from the ſurface of the water is leſs than a foot. Theſe were the firſt fields that the Mexicans owned after the foundation of Mexico; there they firſt cultivated the maize, great pepper, and other plants neceſſary for their ſupport. From the induſtry of the people theſe fields ſoon became numerous. At preſent they cultivate flowers and every ſort of garden herbs upon them. Every day of the year, at ſunriſe, innumerable veſſels or boats, loaded with various kinds of flowers and herbs which are cultivated in theſe gardens, are ſeen arriving by the canal at the great market place of Mexico. All plants thrive in them ſurpriſingly; the mud of the lake makes a very rich ſoil, which requires no water from the clouds. In the largeſt gardens there is commonly a little tree, and a little hut to ſhelter the cultivator, and defend him from the rain or the ſun. When the owner of a garden, or the *Chinampa*, as he is called, wiſhes to change his ſituation, to get out of a bad neighbourhood, or to come nearer to his family, he gets into his little boat, and, by his own ſtrength alone, if the garden is ſmall, or with the aſſiſtance of others, if it is large, conducts it wherever he pleaſes, with the little tree and hut upon it. That part of the iſland where theſe floating gardens are, is a place of delightful recreation, where the ſenſes receive the higheſt poſſible gratification.

* *Pulque* is the uſual wine or beer of the Mexicans, made of the fermented juice of the Maguei. This liquor will not keep but one day, and therefore what is made is daily conſumed.

The

The buildings, which are of ſtone, are convenient, and the public edifices, eſpecially the churches, are magnificent, and the city has the appearance of immenſe wealth.

The trade of Mexico conſiſts of three great branches, which extend over the whole world. It carries on a traffic with Europe, by La Vera Cruz, ſituated on the Gulf of Mexico, on North Sea; with the Eaſt Indies, by Acapulo on the South Sea, two hundred and ten miles ſouth-weſt of Mexico; and with South America, by the ſame port. Theſe two ſea ports, Vera Cruz and Acapulco, are admirably well ſituated for the commercial purpoſes to which they were applied. It is by means of the former that Mexico pours her wealth over the whole world; and receives in return the numberleſs luxuries and neceſſaries which Europe affords her. To this port the fleet from Cadiz, called the Flota, conſiſting of three men of war, as a convoy, and fourteen large merchant ſhips, annually arrives about the beginning of November. Its cargo conſiſts of almoſt every commodity and manufacture of Europe; and there are few nations but have more concern in it than the Spaniards, who ſend out little elſe except wine and oil. The profit of theſe, with the freight and commiſſion to the merchants, and duty to the king, is all the advantage which Spain derives from the American commerce. When all the goods are landed and diſpoſed of at La Vera Cruz, the fleet takes in the plate, precious ſtones, and other commodities for Europe. Some time in May they are ready to depart. From La Vera Cruz they ſail to the Havannah, in the Iſle of Cuba, which is the rendezvous where they meet the galleons, another fleet which carries on the trade of Terra Firma by Carthagena, and of Peru by Panama and Porto Bello. When all are collected and provided with a convoy neceſſary for their ſafety, they ſteer for Old Spain.

Acapulco is the ſea port by which the communication is kept up between the different parts of the Spaniſh empire in America, and the Eaſt Indies. About the month of December, the great galleon, attended by a large ſhip as a convoy, which make the only communication between the Philippines and Mexico, annually arrive here. The cargoes of theſe ſhips, (for the convoy, though in a clandeſtine manner, likewiſe carries goods) conſiſt of all the rich commodities and manufactures of the eaſt. At the ſame time the annual ſhip from Lima, the capital of Peru, comes in, and is computed to bring not leſs than two millions of pieces of eight in ſilver, beſides quickſilver, and other valuable commodities, to be laid out in the purchaſe of the galeons cargoes. Several other ſhips, from different parts of Chili and Peru, meet upon the ſame occaſion. A great fair, in which the commodities of all parts of the world are bartered for one another, laſts thirty days. The galeon then prepares for her voyage, loaded with ſilver and ſuch European goods as have been thought neceſſary. The Spaniards, though this trade be carried on entirely through their hands, and in the very heart of their dominions, are comparatively but ſmall gainers by it. For as they allow the Dutch, Great Britain, and other commercial States, to furniſh the greater part of the cargo of the flota, ſo the Spaniſh inhabitants of the Philippines, tainted with the indolence which ruined their European anceſtors, permit the Chineſe merchants to furniſh the greater part of the cargo of the galeon. Notwithſtanding what has been ſaid of Vera Cruz and Acapulco, the city of Mexico, the capital of the empire, ought to be conſidered as the center of commerce in this part of the world; for here the principal merchants reſide, and the greateſt part of the buſineſs is negociated. The Eaſt India goods from Acapulco, and the European from Vera Cruz, alſo paſs through this city. Hither all the gold and ſilver come to be coined, here the king's fifth is depoſited,

and here are wrought all thoſe utenſils and ornaments in plate which are every year ſent into Europe.

History.] The empire of Mexico was ſubdued by Cortes, in the year 1521. Montezuma was at that time emperor of Mexico. In the courſe of the war, he was treacherouſly taken by Cortes, and held as a priſoner. During the impriſonment of Montezuma, Cortes and his army had made repeated attacks on his ſubjects, but without ſucceſs. Cortes was now determined, as his laſt reſource, to try what effect the interpoſition of Montezuma might have to ſoothe or overawe his ſubjects. This unfortunate prince, at the mercy of the treacherous Spaniards, and reduced to the ſad neceſſity of becoming the inſtrument of his own diſgrace, and of the ſlavery of his ſubjects, advanced to the battlements in his royal robes, in all the pomp in which he uſed to appear on ſolemn occaſions. At ſight of their ſovereign, whom they had long been accuſtomed to honour, and almoſt to revere as a god, the weapons dropped from their hands, every tongue was ſilent, all bowed their heads, and many proſtrated themſelves on the ground. Montezuma addreſſed them with every argument that could mitigate their rage, or perſuade them from hoſtilities. When he ended his diſcourſe, a ſullen murmur of diſapprobation ran through the crowd; to this ſucceeded reproaches and threats; and their fury riſing in a moment, they violently poured in whole flights of arrows and vollies of ſtones upon their unhappy monarch; two of the arrows ſtruck him in his body, which, with the blow of a ſtone on his temple, put an end to his life. Guatimozin ſucceeded Montezuma, and maintained a vigorous oppoſition againſt the aſſaults of Cortes; but he, like his predeceſſor, after a noble defence, was forced to ſubmit. Previous to this, being aware of his impending fate, he had ordered that all his treaſures ſhould be thrown into the lake. While a priſoner, on ſuſpicion of his having concealed his treaſure, he was put to the torture, which was done by laying him on burning coals; but he bore whatever the refined cruelty of his tormentors could inflict with the invincible fortitude of an American warrior. One of his chief favourites, his fellow ſufferer, being overcome by the violence of the anguiſh, turned a dejected eye towards his maſter, which ſeemed to implore his permiſſion to reveal all that he knew. But the high-ſpirited prince darted on him a look of authority, mingled with ſcorn, and checked his weakneſs by aſking, "Am I repoſin go a bed flowers?" Overawed by the reproach, he perſevered in dutiful ſilence, and expired. Cortes, aſhamed of a ſcene ſo horrid, reſcued the royal victim from the hands of his torturers, and prolonged a life for new indignities and ſufferings. Cortes died in Spain, in the year 1547, in the ſixty-ſecond year of his age. Envied by his contemporaries, and ill requited by the court which he ſerved, he has been admired and celebrated by ſucceeding ages. By his own deſire he was carried to Mexico, and buried there.

Cortes, the great conqueror of Mexico, diſcovered the extenſive peninſula of California in the year 1536, after enduring incredible hardſhips, and encountering dangers of almoſt every ſpecies. During a long period it continued to be ſo little frequented, that even its form was unknown, and in moſt maps it was repreſented as an iſland. Sir Francis Drake was the firſt who took poſſeſſion of it in 1578, and his right was confirmed by the principal king or chief in the whole country.

SOUTH AMERICA.

WE now enter upon the deſcription of that part of the globe, where the human mind will be ſucceſſively ſurpriſed with the ſublime and aſtoniſhing works of nature; where rivers of amazing breadth flow through beautiful and widely-extended plains, and where lofty mountains, whoſe ſummits are covered with eternal ſnow, intercept the courſe of the clouds, and hide their heads from the view of mortals. In ſome parts of this extenſive region, nature hath bountifully beſtowed her treaſures, and given every thing neceſſary for the convenience and happineſs of man. We have only to regret that a ſet of avaricious men have ſucceſſively drenched with innocent blood theſe plains, which are ſo beautifully formed and enriched by the hand of nature; and that the rod of Spaniſh deſpotiſm has prevented the population of a country which might have ſupported millions of beings in affluence.

DIVISIONS.] South America, like Africa, is an extenſive peninſula, connected with North America by the iſthmus of Darien, and divided between Spain, Portugal, France, Holland, and the Aborigines, as follows:

		Chief Towns.
SPANISH DOMINIONS.	Terra Firma,	Panama and Carthagena,
	Peru,	Lima,
	Chili,	St. Jago,
	Paragua,	Buennos Ayres.
PORTUGUESE.]	Brazil,	St. Salvador.
FRENCH.]	Cayenne,	Caen.
DUTCH.]	Surrinam,	Paramaribo.
ABORIGINES.]	Amazonia,	
	Patagonia.	

Of theſe countries we ſhall treat in their order.*

* For the beſt hiſtory of South America and Mexico, the reader is referred to Robertſon's Hiſtory of America, and the Abbe Clavigero's Hiſtory of Mexico.

SPANISH AMERICA.

TERRA FIRMA, OR CASTILE DEL ORO.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		
Length	1400	between	60° and 82° Weſt Longitude.
Breadth	700		The Equator, and 12° North Latitude.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED north, by the Atlantic ocean, here called the North Sea; eaſt, by the ſame ocean and Surrinam; ſouth, by Amazonia and Peru; weſt, by the Pacific ocean.

IT IS DIVIDED INTO

	Chief Towns.
Terra Firma Proper, or Darien,	Porto Bello, Panama.
Carthagena,	Carthagena.
St. Martha,	
Venezeula,	
Comana,	
Paria,	
New Granada,	
Popayan.	Popayan.

BAYS.] In the South Sea the principal bays are thoſe of Panama and St. Michael; in the North Sea are the bays of Porto Bello, Sino, Guiara, &c.

RIVERS.] The principal rivers are the Darien, Chagre, Santa Maria, Conception, and Oronoko. The peculiarities of this laſt-mentioned river require a particular deſcription.

It was Columbus, who, in 1498, firſt diſcovered the Oronoko, the borders of which have ſince been named Spaniſh Guiana. This great river takes its riſe among the Cordeleras mountains, and is ſaid to diſcharge itſelf into the ocean by forty openings, after it hath been increaſed, throughout an immenſe tract, by the afflux of a prodigious number of rivers more or leſs conſiderable. Such is its impetuoſity that it ſtems the ſtrongeſt tides, and preſerves the freſhneſs of its waters to the diſtance of twelve leagues from the mouth of that vaſt and deep channel within which it was confined. Its rapidity, however, is not always the ſame, which is owing to a circumſtance perhaps entirely peculiar. The Oronoko, which begins to ſwell in April, continues riſing for five months, and during the ſixth remains at its greateſt height. From October, it begins gradually to ſubſide, till the month of March, throughout the whole of which it remains in the fixed ſtate of its greateſt diminution. Theſe alternate changes are regular, and even invariable. Perhaps the riſing of the waters of the Oronoko may depend entirely on the rainy ſeaſon.

The river is not ſo eaſily navigated as might be preſumed from its magnitude; its bed being in many places filled up with rocks, which oblige the navigator, at times, to carry both his boats and the merchandize they are laden with, by land round the obſtruction.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCTIONS.] The climate here, eſpecially in the northern parts, is extremely hot and ſultry during the whole year. From the month of May to the end of November, the ſeaſon called winter by the inhabitants, is almoſt a continual ſucceſſion of thunder, rain, and tempeſts; the clouds precipitating the rains with ſuch impetuoſity, that the low lands exhibit the appearance of an ocean. Great part of the country is of conſequence almoſt continually flooded; and this, together with the exceſſive heat, ſo impregnates the air with vapours, that in many provinces, particularly about Popayan and Porto Bello, it is extremely unwholeſome. The ſoil of this country is very different, the inland parts being extremely rich and fertile, and the coaſts ſandy and barren. It is impoſſible to view without admiration the perpetual verdure of the woods, the luxuriancy of the plains, and the towering height of the mountains. This country produces corn, ſugar, tobacco, and fruits of all kinds; the moſt remarkable is that of the manzanillo tree; it bears a fruit reſembling an apple,

but which, under this ſpecious appearance, contains the moſt ſubtile poiſon. The bean of Carthagena is the fruit of a ſpecies of willow, about the bigneſs of a bean, and is an excellent remedy for the bite of the moſt venomous ſerpents, which are very frequent all over this country. Among the natural merchandize of Terra Firma, the pearls found on the coaſt, particularly in the bay of Panama, are not the leaſt conſiderable. An immenſe number of negro ſlaves are employed in fiſhing for theſe, and have arrived at a wonderful dexterity in this occupation. They are ſometimes, however, devoured by ſharks, while they dive to the bottom, or are cruſhed againſt the ſhelves of the rocks.

Chief Towns.] Carthagena is the principal ſea port town in Terra Firma. It is ſituated on the Atlantic ocean, in North latitude 10° 26′, and about three degrees weſt of the meridian of Philadelphia. The bay on which it ſtands is ſeven miles wide from north to ſouth; abounds with variety of good fiſh; and has a ſufficient depth of water, with good anchorage, and ſo ſmooth that ſhips are no more agitated than on a river. The many ſhallows at its entrance, however, make the help of a good pilot neceſſary. The town and its ſuburbs are fortified in modern ſtyle; the ſtreets are ſtraight, broad, and well-paved. The houſes are principally brick, and one ſtory high. All houſes have balconies and lattices of wood. This city is the reſidence of the governor of the province of Carthagena, and of a biſhop, whoſe ſpiritual juriſdiction extends over the whole province. There is here alſo a court of inquiſition; ſeveral convents and nunneries; a church, a chapel of eaſe, and a college of Jeſuits. The city is well peopled with Indians, Europeans, Negroes, and Creoles. The Europeans, who are not numerous, and the Creoles, manage the whole trade of the place; the other inhabitants are poor, and work hard for ſubſiſtence. The inhabitants are univerſally fond of chocolate and tobacco; and the moſt ſober ſeldom fail of drinking a glaſs of brandy in the morning.

Panama is the capital of Terra Firma Proper, and is ſituated upon a capacious bay to which it gives its name. It is the great receptacle of the vaſt quantities of gold and ſilver, with other rich merchandize, from all parts of Peru and Chili; here they are lodged in ſtore houſes, till the proper ſeaſon arrives to tranſport them to Europe.

Porto Bello is ſituated cloſe to the ſea, on the declivity of a mountain which ſurrounds the whole harbour. The convenience and ſafety of this harbour is ſuch, that Columbus, who firſt diſcovered it, gave it the name of Porto Bello, or the Fine Harbour.

History.] This part of South America was diſcovered by Columbus, in his third voyage to this continent. It was ſubdued and ſettled by the Spaniards about the year 1514, after deſtroying, with great inhumanity, ſeveral millions of the natives. This country was called Terra Firma, on account of its being the firſt part of the continent which was diſcovered, all the lands diſcovered previous to this being iſlands.

PERU.

Situation and Extent.

	Miles.		
Length	1800	between	the Equator and 25° South Latitude.
Breadth	500		60° and 81° West Longitude.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED north, by Terra Firma; weſt, by the Pacific ocean; ſouth, by Chili; and eaſt, by the mountains called the Andes.

Divisions.] Peru is divided into the following provinces:

Provinces.	Chief Towns.
Quito,	Quito, Payta,
Lima,	Lima, latitude 12° 11′ South.
Los Charcos,	Potoſi, Porco.

Rivers.] There is a number of rivers which riſe in the Andes, but moſt of them run to the eaſtward. Among theſe are the Grande, Oronoko, Amazon and Plate. The Amazon riſes in Peru, but directs its courſe eaſtward, and after running between three and four thouſand miles, falls into the Atlantic ocean, under the equator. This river, like others between the tropics, annually overflows its banks, at which time it is one hundred and fifty miles wide at its mouth. It is ſuppoſed to be the largeſt river in the world, either with regard to the length of its courſe, the depth of its waters, or its aſtoniſhing breadth. There is one river in Peru, the waters of which are ſaid to be as red as blood; but this is doubted by ſome: it is probable, however, that there may be qualities in the earth through which this river runs, which may tinge the waters and give them ſome reſemblance to blood.

Climate, Air, and Soil.] From the ſituation of this country, which is within the torrid zone, it is natural to ſuppoſe that it would be almoſt uninhabitable; but the Andes mountains being on the one ſide, and the South ſea on the other, it is not ſo prodigiouſly hot as tropical countries in general are; and in ſome parts it is diſagreeably cold. In one part are mountains of a ſtupendous height and magnitude, having their ſummits covered with ſnow; on the other, volcanoes flaming within, while their ſummits, chaſms, and apertures are involved in ice. The plains are temperate, the beaches and vallies hot; and laſtly, according to the diſpoſition of the country, its high or low ſituation, we find all the variety of gradations of temperature between the two extremes of heat and cold. It is remarkable, that in ſome places it never rains, which defect is ſupplied by a dew that falls every night, and ſufficiently refreſhes the vegetable creation; but in Quito they have prodigious rains, attended by dreadful ſtorms of thunder and lightning. In the inland parts of Peru, and by the banks of the rivers, the ſoil is uſually very fertile; but along the ſea coaſt it is a barren ſand.

Animal and Vegetable Productions.] Vaſt numbers of cattle were imported by the Spaniards into Peru, when they took poſſeſſion of that country; theſe are now ſo amazingly increaſed, that they run wild and are hunted like game. The moſt remarkable animals in this country are the Peruvian ſheep, called the lamas and vicunnas. The lama, in ſeveral particulars, reſembles the camel, as in the ſhape of the neck, head, and ſome other parts; but has no bunch, is much ſmaller, and is cloven-footed. Its upper lip is cleft like that of a hare, through which, when enraged,

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it ſpits a venomous juice, that inflames the part on which it falls. The wool with which it is covered is of different colours, but generally brown. Theſe animals are generally docile, ſo that the Indians uſe them as beaſts of burden. Formerly they uſed to eat their fleſh, and ſtill continue to make that uſe of ſuch as are paſt labour, eſteeming it preferable to mutton. The vicunna reſembles the lama in ſhape, but is much ſmaller, and its wool ſhorter and finer. The moſt remarkable birds found in Peru are the condors and hummers. The condor is prodigiouſly large and carnivorous, and very voracious, frequently ſeizing the lambs as they are feeding upon the heath. The hummer is a night bird, peculiar to the mountainous deſerts of Peru. They are ſeldom ſeen, though frequently heard, both by their ſinging, and a ſtrange humming made in the air by the rapidity of their flight, which when near makes a noiſe like that of a rocket. The inſects found in Peru are muſquetoes in prodigious numbers, miguas, and ſeveral others equally venomous; alſo a variety of beautiful butterflies. This country produces fruits peculiar to the climate, and moſt of thoſe in Europe. The culture of maize, of pimento and of cotton, which was found eſtabliſhed there, has not been neglected; and that of wheat, barley, caſſava, potatoes, ſugar, and of the olive and vine is attended to. The goat has thriven very well; but the ſheep have degenerated, and their wool is become extremely coarſe.

Mines.] In the northern parts of Peru are ſeveral gold mines; but thoſe of ſilver are found all over the country, particulary in the neighbourhood of Potoſi. Nature never offered to the avidity of mankind, in any country on the globe, ſuch rich mines as thoſe of Potoſi. Theſe famous mines were accidentally diſcovered in the year 1545, in this manner; an Indian, named Hualpa, one day following ſome deer, they made directly up the hill of Potoſi; he came to a ſteep craggy part of the hill, and the better to enable him to climb up, laid hold of a ſhrub, which came up by the roots, and laid open, a maſs of ſilver ore—He for ſome time kept it a ſecret, but afterwards revealed it to his friend Guanca, who, becauſe he would not diſcover to him the method of refining it, acquainted the Spaniard his maſter, named Valaroel, with the diſcovery. Valaroel regiſtered the mine in 1545; and from that time till 1638 theſe mines of Potoſi had yielded 395,619,000 pieces of eight, which is about 4,255,000 pieces a year. Potoſi is about twenty or twenty-five leagues from the city of La Plata. The hill, and alſo the country for a conſiderable diſtance round, is quite barren and deſert, and produces neither tree, plant, nor herb, ſo that the inhabitants of Potoſi, which is ſituated at the foot of the hill, on the ſouth ſide, are obliged to procure all the neceſſaries of life from Peru. Theſe mines begin to decreaſe, and others riſe in reputation.

Manufactures, Trade, and Cities.] We join theſe articles here becauſe of their intimate connection; for, except in the cities we ſhall deſcribe, there is no commerce worth mentioning. The city of Lima is the capital of Peru, and of the whole Spaniſh empire: its ſituation, in the middle of a ſpacious and delightful valley, was fixed upon by the famous Pizarro, as the moſt proper for a city, which he expected would preſerve his memory. It is ſo well watered by the Rimac, that the inhabitants, like thoſe of London, command a ſtream, each for his own uſe. There are many very magnificent ſtructures, particularly churches, in this city; though the houſes in general are built of ſlight materials, the equality of the climate, and want of rain, rendering ſtone houſes unneceſſary; and beſides it is found, that theſe are more apt to ſuffer by ſhocks of the earth, which are frequent and dreadful all over this province. Lima is about two leagues from the ſea, extends in length two miles, and in breadth

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one and a quarter. One remarkable fact is ſufficient to demonſtrate the wealth of this city. When the viceroy, the duke de la Palada, made his entry into Lima in 1682, the inhabitants, to do him honour, cauſed the ſtreets to be paved with ingots of ſilver, amounting to ſeventeen millions ſterling. All travellers ſpeak with amazement of the decorations of the churches with gold, ſilver, and precious ſtones, which load and ornament even the walls. The only thing that could juſtify theſe accounts, is the immenſe richneſs and extenſive commerce of theinhabitants. The merchants of Lima may be ſaid to deal with all the quarters of the world, and that both on their own accounts, and as factors for others. Here all the products of the ſouthern provinces are conveyed, in order to be exchanged at the harbour of Lima for ſuch articles as the inhabitants of Peru ſtand in need of; the fleet from Europe and the Eaſt Indies land at the ſame harbour, and the commodities of Aſia, Europe, and America, are there bartered for each other. What there is no immediate vent for, the merchants of Lima purchaſe on their own accounts, and lay up in warehouſes, knowing that they muſt ſoon find an outlet for them, ſince by one channel or other they have a communication with almoſt every commercial nation. But all the wealth of the inhabitants, all the beauty of the ſituation, and the fertility of the climate of Lima are not ſufficient to compenſate for one diſaſter, which always threatens and has ſometimes actually befallen them. In the year 1747, a moſt tremendous earthquake laid three fourths of this city level with the ground, and entirely demoliſhed Callao, the port town belonging to it. Never was any deſtruction more perfect, not more than one of three thouſand inhabitants being left to record this dreadful calamity, and he, by a providence the moſt ſingular and extraordinary imaginable. This man, who happened to be on a fort which overlooked the harbour, perceived in one minute the inhabitants running from their houſes in the utmoſt terror and confuſion; the ſea, as is uſual on ſuch occaſions, receding to a conſiderable diſtance, returned in mountainous waves, foaming with the violence of the agitation, buried the inhabitants for ever in its boſom, and immediately all was ſilent: but the ſame wave which deſtroyed the town, drove a little boat by the place where the man ſtood, into which he threw himſelf, and was ſaved.

Cuſco, the ancient capital of the Peruvian empire, lies in this mountainous country, at a diſtance from the ſea, and has long been on the decline, but it is yet a very conſiderable place. The inhabitants, three parts of whom are Indians, are very induſtrious in manufacturing baize, cotton, and leather. They have alſo both here and in Quito, a particular taſte for painting; and their productions in this way, ſome of which have been admired in Italy, are diſperſed all over South America. Quito is next to Lima in populouſneſs, if not ſuperior to it. It is like Cuſco, an inland city, and having no mines in its neighbourhood, is chiefly famous for its manufactures of cotton, wool, and flax, which ſupply the conſumption over all the kingdom of Peru.

Inhabitants, Manners, and Government.] It is impoſſible to aſcertain with any degree of preciſion the number of inhabitants in Peru. The city of Lima is ſaid to contain 54,000; Guagaquill 20,000; Potoſi 25,000; La Paz 20,000, and Cuſco 26,000. Among all the inhabitants of Peru, pride and lazineſs are ſaid to be the moſt predominant paſſions. Avarice may likewiſe be attributed to ſome of them with a great deal of propriety.

The Indians and negroes are forbidden, under the ſevereſt penalties, to intermarry; for diviſion between theſe two claſſes is the great inſtrument in which the Spaniards truſt for the preſervation of the colonies. Peru is governed by a viceroy, who is abſolute; but it being impoſſible for him to ſuperintend the whole extent of his government,

ment, he delegates a part of his authority to the ſeveral audiences and courts, eſtabliſhed at different places throughout his territories. At Lima there is a treaſury court for receiving a fifth of the mines, and certain taxes paid by the Indians, which belohg to the King of Spain.

NATURAL HISTORY.] There are certain waters in this country, which, in their courſe, turn into ſtone; and fountains of liquid matter, called *coppey*, reſembling pitch and tar, and uſed by ſeamen for the ſame purpoſe. On the coaſts of Guagaquill and Guatimala are found a certain ſpecies of ſnails, which yield the purple dye ſo celebrated by the ancients, and which the moderns have ſuppoſed to have been loſt. The ſhell that contains them is fixed to rocks, watered by the ſea: it is of the ſize of a large nut. Various methods are uſed to extract the purple matter from the animal. There is no colour that can be compared to this either in luſtre or permanence.

Under this head it may not be improper to make ſome obſervations upon that new ſubſtance called the Platina, and which may be conſidered as an *eighth* metal. In its native ſtate it is mixed with gold and iron, and this at firſt gave riſe to a ſuſpicion that it was nothing more than a combination of theſe two metals; but late experiments of chymiſts fully prove, that it is a pure and ſimple metal, with properties peculiar to itſelf. It cannot be affected by any ſimple acid, or by any known ſolvent, except the aqua regia; it will not tarniſh in the air, neither will it ruſt; it unites to the fixedneſs of gold, and to the property it has of not being ſuſceptible of deſtruction, a hardneſs almoſt equal to that of iron, and a much greater difficulty of fuſion: it is of an intermediate colour between that of iron and ſilver; it can be forged and extended into thin plates; and when diſſolved in aqua regia, it may be made to aſſume, by precipitation, an infinite diverſity of colours: and Count Milbey has ſucceeded in varying theſe precipitates ſo much, that he has had a picture painted, in the colouring of which, there is ſcarce any thing but platina made uſe of. Upon the whole, from conſidering the advantages of the platina, we cannot but conclude that this metal deſerves, at leaſt, from its ſuperiority to all others, to ſhare the title of king of the metals, of which gold has ſo long been in poſſeſſion. The Peruvian bark, ſo famous at preſent for curing intermittent fevers, may likewiſe be mentioned in this place. The tree from which it is taken grows upon the ſlope of mountains, and is about the ſize of a common cherry tree. It is diſtinguiſhed into three kinds; the red, yellow, and the white; but the red is found to be the beſt and moſt efficacious. The Jeſuits carried this bark to Rome as early as 1639; but the natives are ſuppoſed to have been acquainted with its medicinal qualities many ages before.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS.] In treating of this country the mind is naturally led back to the barbarous and cruel conquerors of it, who, coming from the old world in queſt of gold to ſatisfy their avarice, diſplayed ſcenes ſhocking to humanity. After the conqueſt, the country ſcarcely preſerved any thing but its name, every thing aſſumed a new face. There were other edifices, other inhabitants, other occupations, other prejudices, and other religions.—See Robertſon's Hiſtory of America.

CHILI.

Situation and Extent.

	Miles.		
Length	1260	between	25° and 44° S. Lat.
Breadth	580		65° and 85° W. Long.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED on the north, by Peru; by Paragua or La Plata, on the east; by Patagonia, on the ſouth; and by the Pacific ocean, on the weſt. It lies on both ſides of the Andes; Chili Proper lies on the weſt, and Cuyo or Cutio, on the eaſt. The principal towns in the former are St. Jago and Baldivia; in the latter, St. John de Frontiera.

Climate and Soil.] The climate of Chili is one of the moſt delightful in the world, being a medium between the intenſe heats of the torrid, and the piercing colds of the frigid zones. Along the coaſt of the Pacific ocean, they enjoy a fine temperate air, and a clear ſerene ſky, moſt part of the year; but ſometimes the winds that blow from the mountains, in winter, are exceedingly ſharp. There are few places in this extenſive country where the ſoil is not exuberantly rich; and were its natural advantages ſeconded by the induſtry of the inhabitants, Chili would be the moſt opulent kingdom in America.

Animal and Vegetable Productions.] The horſes and mules of Chili are in great eſteem, particularly the former. This breed of horſes was originally carried from Old Spain, and inſtead of degenerating, have now become ſuperior to the Spaniſh horſes themſelves: in beauty and gracefulneſs, they are not inferior to the famous Andaluſian horſes; and ſuch is their value, that one of them is thought a preſent worthy the acceptance of a crowned head.

Prodigious numbers of oxen, goats, and ſheep, are fattened in the luxuriant paſtures of Chili, and indeed this is the only part of huſbandry to which the inhabitants pay any conſiderable attention. An ox well fattened may be purchaſed for four dollars. Turkeys, geeſe, and all kinds of poultry are found here in the ſame profuſion; wild fowl are alſo common, among which are wood pigeons, turtle-doves, partridges, and royal cirapicos. A very particular ſpecies of bird is found in Chili, called the awakener; it is about the ſize of a middling fowl; its plumage is black and white; has a thick neck; the head rather large, erect, and beautifully adorned with a tuft of feathers; its eyes are large, ſharp, and lively; on the fore part of its wings are two ſpurs, about an inch in length, theſe are its weapons of defence againſt all other birds. It has obtained the name of the awakener from the notice it gives to all birds in time of danger; and this it does, by making a loud chattering noiſe, which immediately induces the other to fly from the enemy.

The coaſts abound with many excellent fiſh: there are alſo vaſt numbers of whales and ſea wolves. The ſoil produces Indian and European corn, hemp, grapes, and all other fruits. The European fruit trees are obliged to be propped to enable them to ſuſtain the weight of the fruit; the orchards in particular yield great quantities of all ſorts of apples; the ſtrawberries are very large and moſt commonly red, but ſometimes white and yellow. In many places orange trees are in bloom, and bear fruit throughout the year: olives alſo, and almond trees, thrive exceedingly well, and the inhabitants preſs

a kind of muſcadee wine from their grapes, which far exceeds any of the kind made in Spain. The trunks of the vines are, in ſome places, ſaid to be as thick as a man's body, and the grapes are amazingly large.

MINES.] Mines of gold, ſilver, copper, tin, quickſilver, iron and lead, abound in this country. Vaſt quantities of gold are waſhed down from the mountains by brooks and torrents; the annual amount of which, when manufactured, is eſtimated at no leſs than 800,000 dollars.

COMMERCE.] Chili has always had commercial connections with the neighbouring Indians on its frontiers, with Peru and with Paragua. The Indians in their tranſactions are found to be perfectly honeſt. Chili ſupplies Peru with hides, dried fruit, copper, ſalt meat, horſes, hemp, and corn; and receives in exchange tobacco, ſugar, cocoa, earthen ware, ſome manufactures made at Quito, and ſome articles of luxury brought from Europe. The ſhips ſent from Calao on this traffic, which is reciprocally uſeful, were formerly bound for Conception bay, but now come to Valparaiſo. During the courſe of near a century, no navigator in theſe tranquil ſeas would venture to loſe ſight of land, and then theſe voyages laſted a whole year. A pilot of the old world, having at length obſerved the winds, performed the navigation in one month. He was conſidered as a wizard, and was taken up by order of the inquiſition, whoſe ignorance becomes an object of ridicule, when its cruelty doth not excite our abhorrence. The journal he produced was his vindication; and it plainly appeared that to perform the ſame voyage it was only neceſſary to keep clear of the coaſts: his method was therefore univerſally adopted.

Chili ſends to Paragua wines, brandy, oil, and chiefly gold; and receives in payment mules, wax, cotton, the herb of Paragua, negroes, and alſo much of the merchandize of the ancient hemiſphere, before the merchants of Lima had obtained, either by bribery, or by their influence, that this laſt branch of commerce ſhould be prohibited. The commerce between the two colonies is not carried on by ſea; it hath been found more expeditious, ſafe, and even leſs expenſive to go by land, though it is 354 leagues from St. Jago to Buennos Ayres, and more than forty leagues of the way are amidſt the ſnows and precipices of the Cordeleras.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] The Indians in this country are ſtill in a great meaſure unconquered; they live ſcattered in the deſerts and the foreſts, and it is impoſſible to aſcertain their numbers. It has already been mentioned, that thoſe Indians, which are not ſubject to the Spaniſh yoke, are very honeſt in their commercial tranſactions, performing to a punctilio whatever they have promiſed; but, like almoſt all other Indians, they are very fond of ſpirituous liquors, and are eager to purchaſe them from every quarter. They live in ſmall huts, which they build in the courſe of a day or two at fartheſt; and which they abandon when hard puſhed by an enemy. They are brave and warlike, and all the attempts of the Spaniards to ſubdue them have proved ineffectual. It is almoſt equally difficult to aſcertain the number of Spaniards in Chili. The Abbe Raynal ſays, there are 40,000 in the city of St. Jago; if this be true, the aggregate number in all the provinces of Chili muſt be more conſiderable than has been generally ſuppoſed. The character and manners of theſe people do not differ materially from thoſe in Peru.

GOVERNMENT.] St. Jago is the capital of the State and the ſeat of the empire. The commandant there is ſubordinate to the viceroy of Peru in all matters relating to the government, to the finances, and to war; but he is independent of him as chief adminiſtrator of juſtice, and preſident of the royal audience. Eleven inferior officers, diſtributed in the province, are charged, under his orders, with the details of adminiſtration.

PARA-

PARAGGUA, OR LA PLATA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.			
Length 1500	between	12° and 37° S. Lat.	
Breadth 1000		50° and 75° W. Long.	

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Amazonia, on the north; by Braſil, eaſt; by Patagonia, ſouth; and by Peru and Chili, weſt.

It contains the following provinces:

Paragua, Parana, Guira, Uragua, Tucuman, Rio de la Plata.

RIVERS.] Beſides a vaſt number of ſmaller rivers which water this country, there is the grand river La Plata, which deſerves a particular deſcription. A Modeneſe Jeſuit, by the name of P. Cattanco, who ſailed up this river, ſpeaks in the following language concerning it: "While I reſided in Europe, and read in books of hiſtory or geography that the river de la Plata was 150 miles in breadth, I conſidered it as an exaggeration, becauſe in this hemiſphere, we have no example of ſuch vaſt rivers. When I approached its mouth, I had the moſt vehement deſire to aſcertain the breadth with my own eyes, and I have found the matter to be exactly as it was repreſented. This I deduce particularly from one circumſtance: when we took our departure from Monte Viedo, a fort ſituated more than 100 miles from the mouth of the river, and where its breadth is conſiderably diminiſhed, we ſailed a complete day before we diſcovered the land on the oppoſite bank of the river; and when we were in the middle of the channel, we could not diſcover land on either ſide, and ſaw nothing but the ſky and water, as if we had been in ſome great ocean. Indeed, we ſhould have taken it to be ſea, if the freſh water of the river, which was turbid like the Po, had not ſatisfied us that it was a river."

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] From the ſituation of this country, ſome parts of it muſt be extremely hot, from the almoſt vertical influence of the rays of the ſun; while other parts muſt be pleaſant and delightful. But the heat is in ſome meaſure abated by the gentle breezes, which generally begin about nine or ten o'clock in the morning, and continue the greateſt part of the day. Some parts of the country are very mountainous; but in many others you find extenſive and beautiful plains, where the ſoil is very rich, producing cotton, tobacco, and the valuable herb called Paragua, together with a variety of fruits. There are alſo prodigiouſly rich paſtures, in which are bred ſuch herds of cattle, that, it is ſaid, the hides are the only part exported; while the fleſh is left to be devoured by the ravenous beaſts of the wilderneſs. Not long ſince, a horſe might be purchaſed here for one dollar, and an ox, choſen out of ſeveral hundred, for a ſtill more trifling ſum.

COMMERCE AND CHIEF CITY.] Paragua ſends annually into the kingdom of Peru as many as 1500 or 2000 mules. They travel over dreary deſerts for the diſtance of 8 or 900 leagues. What is not man capable of doing when neceſſity, reſolution, and avarice are united? neither deep and miry ſwamps, nor ſummits of lofty mountains covered with eternal ſnow, can bar his progreſs. The province of Tucuman furniſhes to Potoſi, annually, 16 or 18,000 oxen, and 4 or 5000 horſes, brought forth and

reared upon its own territory. Paragua ſends ſeveral articles of commerce to Spain, but they are all brought from neighbouring diſtricts. The only article it furniſhes from its own territory is hides.

Buennos Ayres is the capital of this country: its ſituation on the river La Plata is healthy and pleaſant, and the air temperate: it is regularly built; its ſtreets are wide, the houſes are extremely low, and each of them is accommodated with a garden. The public and private buildings which, ſixty years ago, were all made of earth, are of more ſolid and commodious conſtruction, ſince the natives have learned the art of making brick and lime. The number of inhabitants is about 30,000. One ſide of the town is defended by a fortreſs with a garriſon of 6 or 700 men. The town ſtands 180 miles from the ſea; the ſhips get to it by ſailing up a river that wants depth, is full of iſlands, ſhoals, and rocks, and where ſtorms are more frequent and more dreadful than on the ocean. It is neceſſary to anchor every night on the ſpot where they come to; and on the moſt moderate days a pilot muſt go to ſound the way for the ſhip: after having ſurmounted theſe difficulties, the ſhips are obliged, at the diſtance of three leagues from the town, to put their goods on board ſome light veſſel, and to go to refit, and to wait for their cargoes at Incunado de Barragan, ſituated ſeven or eight leagues below.

Inhabitants.] As to the number of inhabitants in this country, from the beſt information that can be obtained, there are not more than 100,000, including Spaniards, Indians, Negroes, and the mixed blood or Cicoles. The Spaniards exhibit much the ſame character here as in the other kingdoms already deſcribed.

General Observations.] It is a circumſtance well known to all who are acquainted with the hiſtory of South America, that long ago the Jeſuits introduced themſelves into this country, and made great efforts to civilize and chriſtianize the natives. Their conduct and inſtitutions open an abundant ſource of reflection. We are naturally led to inquire what could induce men to abandon the ſeat of eaſe and tranquillity; to traverſe immenſe deſerts; to climb the craggy cliffs of lofty mountains; to plunge into deep and miry ſwamps; to ſubject themſelves to hunger, to thirſt, to danger and miſery of every kind; ſurrounded by fierce and unknown ſavages, whoſe characters they were unacquainted with, and whoſe ſuſpicions might have armed them with vengeance in an inſtant; who neither knew nor cared to know the errand on which theſe miſſionaries came; whoſe manner of life was independent, and whoſe minds diſdained the burdens of civilized life: I ſay, we wiſh to know what powerful motives could have inclined theſe miſſionaries to leave cultivated ſociety, and encounter all theſe dangers? Was it the love of riches, a thirſt for glory, or the good of mankind, that influenced their conduct? or were they influenced by a blind and miſguided ſuperſtition? Whatever may have been their motives, if hiſtory ſpeaks the truth, they have really made the inhabitants of this part of the new world more virtuous, more civil, and more happy.

PORTUGUESE AMERICA.

BRAZIL.

Situation and Extent.

	Miles.		
Length	2500	between	the Equator and 35° S. Lat.
Breadth	700		35° and 60° W. Longitude.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED by the mouth of the river Amazon and the Atlantic ocean, on the north; and by the ſame ocean, on the eaſt; on the ſouth by the river Plata; on the weſt, by moraſſes, lakes, torrents, rivers, and mountains, which ſeparate it from Amazonia and the Spaniſh poſſeſſions. On the coaſt are three ſmall iſlands, where ſhips touch for proviſions on their voyage to the South Seas, viz. Fernando, St. Barbaro, and St. Catherine's.

Bays, Harbours, and Rivers.] Theſe are the harbours of Panambuco, All Saints, Rio Janeiro, the port of St. Vincent, the harbour of Gabriel, and the Port of St. Salvador. There are a great number of noble ſtreams, which unite with the rivers Amazon and Plata, beſides others which fall into the Atlantic ocean.

Climate, Soil, and Productions.] The climate of Brazil has been deſcribed by two eminent naturaliſts, Piſo and Margrave, who obſerved it with a philoſophical accuracy, to be temperate and mild, when compared with that of Africa: they aſcribe this chiefly to the refreſhing wind which blows continually from the ſea. The air is not only cool, but chilly through the night, ſo that the natives kindle a fire every evening in their huts. As the rivers in this country annually overflow their banks, and leave a ſort of ſlime upon the lands, the ſoil here muſt be in many places amazingly rich; and this correſponds with the beſt information upon the ſubject. The vegetable productions are Indian corn, ſugar canes, tobacco, indigo, hides, ipecacuana, balſam, Brazil wood, which is of a red colour, hard and dry, and is chiefly uſed in dying, but not the red of the beſt kind. Here is alſo the yellow fuſtic, of uſe in dying yellow; and a beautiful piece of ſpeckled wood, made uſe of in cabinet work. Here are five different ſorts of palm trees, ſome curious ebony, and a great variety of cotton trees. This country abounds in horned cattle, which are hunted for their hides only, 20,000 being ſent annually into Europe. There is alſo a plenty of deers, hares, and other game. Amongſt the wild beaſts found here, are tygers, porcupines, janouveras, and a fierce animal, ſomewhat like a greyhound; monkeys, ſloths, and the topiraſſou, a creature between a bull and an aſs, but without horns, and entirely harmleſs; the fleſh is very good and has the flavour of beef. There is a numberleſs variety of fowl, wild and tame in this country: among theſe are turkeys, fine white hens and ducks. The remarkable birds are the humming bird; the lankima, ſometimes called the unicorn bird, from its having a horn, two or three inches long, growing out of its forehead; the guira, famous for often changing its colour, being firſt black, then aſh-coloured,

next white, afterwards ſcarlet, and laſt of all crimſon: which colours grow richer and deeper the longer the bird lives. Among the abundance of fiſh with which the ſeas, lakes, and rivers of this country are ſtored, is the globe fiſh, ſo called from its form, which is ſo beſet with ſpines like a hedge-hog, that it bids defiance to all fiſh of prey. But the moſt remarkable creature is the ſea bladder, ſo called becauſe it greatly reſembles one, and ſwims on the ſurface of the waves; the inſide is filled with air, except a ſmall quantity of water, that ſerves to poiſe it. The ſkin is very thin and tranſparent, and, like a bubble raiſed in the water, reflects all the colours of the ſky. Brazil breeds a great variety of ſerpents and venomous creatures, among which are the Indian ſalamander, a four-legged inſect, the ſting of which is mortal; the ibivaboca, a ſpecies of ſerpent, about ſeven yards long, and half a yard in circumference, whoſe poiſon is inſtantaneouſly fatal; the rattle ſnake, which there attains an enormous ſize; the liboyd or roe-buck ſnake, which authors informs us are capable of ſwallowing a roe-buck whole with his horns, being between twenty and thirty feet in length, and two yards in circumference. Beſides thoſe there are many other inſects and ſerpents of a dangerous and venomous nature.

Commerce and Chief Towns.] The trade of Brazil is very great, and increaſes every year; which is the leſs ſurpriſing, as the Portugueſe have opportunities of ſupplying themſelves with ſlaves for their ſeveral works, at a much cheaper rate than any other European power that has ſettlements in America, they being the only European nation that has eſtabliſhed colonies in Africa, and from whence they import as many as 40,000 negroes annually. The exports of Brazil are diamonds, ſugar, tobacco, hides, drugs and medicines; and they receive in return, woollen goods of all kinds, linens, laces, ſilks, hats, lead, tin, pewter, copper, iron, beef, and cheeſe. They alſo receive from Madeira a great quantity of wine, vinegar, and brandy; and from Azores, 25,000l. worth of other liquors.

St. Salvador is the capital of Brazil. This city, which has a noble, ſpacious, and commodious harbour, is built on a high and ſteep rock, having the ſea upon one ſide, a lake forming a creſcent on the other. The ſituation makes it in a manner impregnable by nature, and they have beſides added to it very ſtrong fortifications. It is populous, magnificent, and beyond compariſon the moſt gay and opulent in all Brazil.

Mines.] There are gold mines in many parts of this country, which have been wrought with conſiderable profit to government. The extraction of gold is neither very laborious nor dangerous in Brazil. It is ſometimes on the ſurface of the ſoil, and this is the pureſt kind, and at other times it is neceſſary to dig for it 18 or 20 feet, but ſeldom lower. It is found in larger pieces upon the mountains and barren rocks than in the valleys, or on the borders of the river. Every man who diſcovers a mine, muſt give notice of it to the government. If the vein be thought of little conſequence by perſons appointed to examine it, it is always given up to the public. If it be declared to be a rich vein, the government reſerve a portion of it to themſelves. Another ſhare is given to the commandant, a third to the intendant, and two ſhares are ſecured to the diſcoverer. The mines are obliged to deliver to the king of Portugal a fifth part of all the gold which is extracted. There are alſo many diamond mines, which have been diſcovered in this country; they are of all colours and alſo of every ſhade. The diamond has the red of the ruby, the orange of the hyacinth, the blue of the ſapphire, and the green of the emerald. The laſt is the moſt ſcarce and deareſt, when it is of a beautiful tint. Tranſparency and clearneſs are the natural eſſential properties of the diamond.

Natives.]

NATIVES.] The native Brazilians are about the ſize of the Europeans, but not ſo ſtout. They are ſubject to fewer diſtempers, and are long lived. They wear no cloathing; the women wear their hair extremely long, the men cut their's ſhort; the women wear bracelets of bones of a beautiful white, the men necklaces of the ſame; the women paint their faces, and the men their bodies. The food of the Brazilians is very ſimple; they live upon ſhell fiſh by the ſea ſide, along the rivers by fiſhing, and in the foreſts by hunting; and when theſe fail, they live upon caſſava and other roots. They are extremely fond of dancing and other amuſements, and theſe amuſements are not interrupted by the worſhip of a Supreme Being, for it is ſaid they know of none, nor is their tranquillity diſturbed by the dread of a future ſtate, of which they have no idea. They have however their magicians, who, by ſtrange contortions, ſo far work upon the credulity of the people, as to throw them into violent convulſions. If the impoſtures of theſe magicians are detected, they are immediately put to death, which ſerves in ſome meaſure to check the ſpirit of deceit. Every Brazilian takes as many wives as he chooſes, and puts them away when he gets tired of them. When the women lie in, they keep their bed but a day or two; then the mother, hanging the child to her neck in a cotton ſcarf, returns to her uſual occupation, without any kind of inconvenience. Travellers are received with diſtinguiſhed marks of civility by the native Brazilians. Wherever they go they are ſurrounded with women, who waſh their feet, and welcome them with the moſt obliging expreſſions. But it would be an unpardonable affront if they ſhould leave the family where they were firſt entertained, in hopes of better accommodation in another. Some of theſe virtues, however, were more applicable to theſe natives, before they were corrupted by an intercourſe with Europeans.

RELIGION.] Though the king of Portugal, as grand maſter of the order of Chriſt, be ſolely in poſſeſſion of the titles; and though the produce of the cruſade belongs entirely to him; yet in this extenſive country, ſix biſhoprics have been ſucceſſively founded, which acknowledge for their ſuperior the archbiſhopric of Bohia, eſtabliſhed in the year 1552. The fortunate prelates, moſt of them Europeans, who fill theſe honourable ſees, live in a very commodious manner, upon the emoluments attached to the function of their miniſtry, and upon a penſion of 50l. and from that to 1250l. granted to them by the government. Among the inferior clergy, none but the miſſionaries, who are ſettled in the Indian villages, are paid; but the others find ſufficient reſources among the ſuperſtitious people, whom they are to edify, to inſtruct, and to comfort. Beſides an annual tribute, paid by every family to the clergyman, he is entitled to two ſhillings for every birth, for every wedding, and every burial. Though there be not abſolutely an inquiſition in Brazil, yet the people of that country are not protected from the outrages of that barbarous inſtitution.

GOVERNMENT.] The government of Brazil is in the viceroy, who has two councils; one for criminal, the other for civil affairs, in both of which he preſides; but there is no part of the world where the lawyers are more corrupt, or the chicanery of their profeſſion more practiſed.

Only half of the 16 Captainries, into which this country is divided, belong to the crown, the reſt being fiefs made over to ſome of the nobility, in reward of their extraordinary ſervices, who do little more than acknowledge the ſovereignty of the king of Portugal.

HISTORY, &c.] The Portugueſe diſcovered this country in the year 1500, but did not plant it till the year 1549, when they took poſſeſſion of All Saints Bay, and built the city of St. Salvador, which is now the reſidence of the viceroy and archbiſhop.

The Dutch invaded Brazil in 1623, and ſubdued the northern provinces; but the Portugueſe agreed in 1661, to pay the Dutch eight tons of gold to relinquiſh their intereſt in this country, which was accepted, and the Portugueſe remained in peaceable poſſeſſion of all Brazil till about the end of 1762, when the Spaniſh governor of Buennos Ayres, hearing of a war between Portugal and Spain, took, after a month's ſiege, the Portugueſe frontier fortreſs, called St. Sacrament; but by the treaty of peace it was reſtored.

FRENCH AMERICA.

CAYENNE.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED north and eaſt, by the Atlantic ocean; ſouth, by Amazonia; and weſt, by Guiana, or Surrinam. It extends 240 miles along the coaſt of Guiana, and nearly 300 miles within land, lying between the equator and the 5th degree north latitude.

Climate, Soil, and Produce.] The land along the coaſt is low, and very ſubject to inundations during the rainy ſeaſons, from the multitude of rivers which ruſh down from the mountains with great impetuoſity. Here the atmoſphere is very hot, moiſt and unwholeſome, eſpecially where the woods are not cleared away; but on the higher parts where the trees are cut down, and the ground laid out in plantations, the air is more healthy, and the heat greatly mitigated by the ſea breezes. The ſoil in many parts is very fertile, producing ſugar, tobacco, Indian corn, fruits, and other neceſſaries of life.

General Obſervations.] The French have taken poſſeſſion of an iſland, upon this coaſt, called alſo Cayenne. It is about 30 miles in circumference, and is very unhealthy; but having ſome good harbours, they have here ſome ſettlements, which raiſe ſugar, coffee, and ſome other kinds of produce. The French eſtabliſhed themſelves here in 1635; but they afterwards abandoned the iſland, and the Engliſh took poſſeſſion of it. Soon after the French returned and drove out the Engliſh, but were expelled in their turn by the Dutch, who kept their conqueſt but a ſhort time, and then were ſubdued by the French, who ſtill keep poſſeſſion of it. The whole of Cayenne is an inconſiderable province, and therefore very little is related of it.

DUTCH AMERICA.

SURRINAM, or DUTCH GUIANA.

THIS province, the only one belonging to the Dutch, on the continent of America, is ſituated between 5° and 7° N. lat. having the mouth of the Oronoko and the Atlantic on the north; Cayenne eaſt; Amazonia ſouth, and Terra Firma weſt.

The

The Dutch claim the whole coaſt from the mouth of Oronoko to the river Marowyne, on which are ſituated their colonies of Eſſequebo, Demerara, Berbice, and Surrinam. The latter begins with the river Saramacha, and ends with the Marowyne, including a length of coaſt of 120 miles.

Rivers.] A nu..ber of fine rivers paſs through this country, the principal of which are Eſſequebo, Surrinam, Demerara, Berbice, and Conya. Eſſequebo is nine miles wide at its mouth, and is more than 300 miles in length. Surrinam is a beautiful river, three quarters of a mile wide, navigable for the largeſt veſſels four leagues, and for ſmaller veſſels 60 or 70 miles further. Its banks, quite to the water's edge, are covered with evergreen mangrove trees, which render the paſſage up this river very delightful. The Demerara is about three quarters of a mile wide where it empties into the Surrinam, is navigable for large veſſels 100 miles; a hundred miles further are ſeveral falls of eaſy aſcent, above which it divides into the ſouth-weſt and ſouth-eaſt branches.

Climate.] In the months of September, October, and November, the climate is unhealthy, particularly to ſtrangers. The common diſeaſes are putrid and other fevers, the dry belly-ach, and the dropſy.—100 miles back from the ſea, you come to quite a different ſoil, a hilly country, a pure, dry, wholeſome air, where a fire ſometimes would not be diſagreeable. Along the ſea coaſt the water is brackiſh and unwholeſome, the air damp and ſultry.—The thermometer ranges from 75° to 90° through the year. A north-eaſt breeze never fails to blow from about 9 o'clock in the morning through the day, in the hotteſt ſeaſons. As the days and nights throughout the year are very nearly of equal length, the air can never become extremely heated, nor the inhabitants ſo greatly incommoded by the heat, as thoſe who live at a greater diſtance from the equator. The ſeaſons were formerly divided regularly into rainy and dry; but of late years ſo much dependence cannot be placed upon them, owing probably to the country's being more cleared, by which means a free paſſage is opened for the air and vapours.

Water.] The water of the lower parts of the river is brackiſh, and unfit for uſe; and the inhabitants are obliged to make uſe of rain water, which is here uncommonly ſweet and good. It is caught in ciſterns placed under ground, and before drinking, is ſet in large earthen pots to ſettle, by which means it becomes very clear and wholeſome. Theſe ciſterns are ſo large and numerous, that water is ſeldom ſcarce.

Chief Towns and Population.] Paramaribo, ſituated on Surrinam river, 4 leagues from the ſea, N. Lat. 6°, W. Lon. 55° from London, is the principal town in Surrinam. It contains about 2000 whites, one half of whom are Jews, and 8000 ſlaves. The houſes are principally of wood, ſome few have glaſs windows, but generally they have wooden ſhutters. The ſtreets are ſpacious and ſtraight, and planted on each ſide with orange or tamarind trees.

About ſeventy miles from the ſea, on the ſame river, is a village of about 40 or 50 houſes, inhabited by Jews. This village and the town above mentioned, with the intervening plantations, contain all the inhabitants in this colony, which amount to 3200 whites, and 43,000 ſlaves. The buildings on the plantations are many of them coſtly, convenient, and airy. The country around is thinly inhabited with the native Indians, a harmleſs friendly ſet of beings. They are, in general, ſhort of ſtature, but remarkably well made, of a light copper colour, ſtraight black hair, without beards, high cheek bones, and broad ſhoulders. In their ears, noſes, and hair, the women wear ornaments of ſilver, &c. Both men and women go naked. One nation or tribe of them tie the lower part of the leg of the female children, when young, with a cord

bound very tight for the breadth of 6 inches about the ancle, which cord is never afterwards taken off but to put on a new one, by which means the fleſh, which ſhould otherwiſe grow on that part of the leg, increaſes the calf to a great ſize, and leaves the bone below nearly bare. This, though it muſt render them very weak, is reckoned a great beauty by them. The language of the Indians appears to be very ſoft. They are mortal enemies to every kind of labour; but nevertheleſs manufacture a few articles, ſuch as very fine cotton hammocks, earthen water pots, baſkets, a red or yellow dye called *Roucau*, and ſome other trifles, all which they bring to town and exchange for ſuch articles as they ſtand in need of.

They paint themſelves red, and ſome are curiouſly figured with black. Their food conſiſts chiefly of fiſh and crabs, and caſſava, of which they plant great quantities, and this is almoſt the only produce they attend to. They cannot be ſaid to be abſolutely wandering tribes, but their huts being merely a few croſs ſticks covered with branches, ſo as to defend them from the rain and ſun, they frequently quit their habitations, if they ſee occaſion, and eſtabliſh them elſewhere. They do not ſhun the whites, and have been ſerviceable againſt the runaway negroes.

Dr. Bancroft obſerves, that the inhabitants of Dutch Guiana are either whites, blacks, or the reddiſh brown aboriginal natives. The promiſcuous intercourſe of theſe different people have generated ſeveral intermediate caſts, whoſe colours depend on their degree of conſanguinity to either whites, blacks, negroes, or Indians.

Soil, Productions, Trade, &c.] Through the whole country runs a ridge of oyſter-ſhells, nearly parallel to the coaſt, but three or four leagues from it, of a conſiderable breadth, and from four to eight feet deep, compoſed of ſhells exactly of the ſame nature as thoſe which form the preſent coaſt: from this and other circumſtances, there is great reaſon to believe that the land, from that diſtance from the ſea, is all *new land*, reſcued from the ſea, either by ſome revolution in nature, or other unknown cauſe.

On each ſide of the rivers and creeks are ſituated the Plantations, containing from 500 to 2000 acres each, in number about 550 in the whole colony, producing at preſent annually about 16,000 hhds. of ſugar, 12,000,000lb. coffee, 700,000lb. cocoa, 850,000lb. cotton: all which articles (cotton excepted) have fallen off within 15 years, at leaſt one third, owing to bad management, both here and in Holland, and to other cauſes. Of the proprietors of theſe plantations, not above 80 reſide here. The ſugar plantations have many of them water-mills, which being much more profitable than others, and the ſituation of the colony admitting of them, will probably become general; of the reſt, ſome are worked by mules, others by cattle, but from the lowneſs of the country none by the wind. The eſtates are for the greateſt part mortgaged for as much or more than they are worth, which greatly diſcourages any improvements which might otherwiſe be made. Was it not for the unfortunate ſituation of the colony in this and other reſpects, it is certainly capable of being brought to a great height of improvement; dyes, gum, oils, plants for medical purpoſes, &c. might, and undoubtedly will, at ſome future period, be found in abundance. Rum might be diſtilled here; indigo, ginger, rice, tobacco, have been, and may be farther cultivated, and many other articles. In the woods are found many kinds of good and durable timber, and ſome woods for ornamental purpoſes, particularly a kind of mahogany called *copic*. The ſoil is perhaps as rich and as luxuriant as any in the world; it is generally a rich, fat, clayey earth, lying in ſome places above the level of the rivers at high water, (which riſes about 8 feet) and in moſt places below it. Whenever, from a continued courſe of cultivation for many years, a piece of land becomes impoveriſhed,

poveriſhed, (for manure is not known here) it is laid under water for a certain number of years, and thereby regains its fertility, and in the mean time a new piece of wood land is cleared. This country has never experienced thoſe dreadful ſcourges of the Weſt Indies, hurricanes; and droughts from the lowneſs of the land it has not to fear, nor has the produce ever been deſtroyed by inſects or by the blaſt. In ſhort, this colony, by proper management, might become equal to Jamaica, or any other. Land is not wanting; it is finely interſected by noble rivers, and abundant creeks; the ſoil is of the beſt kind; it is well ſituated, and the climate is not very unhealthy, and is growing better, and will continue ſo to do, the more the country is cleared of its woods, and cultivated.

Animals, Fish, Serpents, &c.] The rivers abound with fiſh, ſome of which are good; at certain ſeaſons of the year there is plenty of turtle. The woods abound with plenty of deer, hares, and rabbits, a kind of buffaloe, and two ſpecies of wild hogs, one of which (the peccary) is remarkable for having its navel on the back.

The woods are infeſted with ſeveral ſpecies of tygers, but with no other ravenous or dangerous animals. The rivers are rendered dangerous by alligators, from four to ſeven feet long, and a man was a ſhort time ſince cruſhed between the jaws of a fiſh, but its name is not known. Scorpions and tarantulas are found here of a large ſize and great venom, and other inſects without number, ſome of them very dangerous and troubleſome. The torporific eel alſo, the touch of which, by means of the bare hand or any conductor, has the effect of a ſtrong electrical ſhock. Serpents alſo, ſome of which are venomous, and others, as has been aſſerted by many credible perſons, are from 25 to 50 feet long. In the woods are monkeys, the ſloth, and parrots in all their varieties; alſo ſome birds of beautiful plumage, among others the flamingo, but few or no ſinging birds.

Military Strength, Government, &c.] The river Surrinam is guarded by a fort and two redoubts at the entrance, and a fort at Paramaribo, but none of them of any ſtrength, ſo that one or two frigates would be ſufficient to make themſelves maſters of the whole colony, and never was there a people who more ardently wiſhed for a change of government than the inhabitants of this colony do at this time. The many grievances they labour under, and the immenſe burthen of taxes, which almoſt threaten the ruin of the colony, make them in ſome meaſure excuſable in their general deſire to change the Dutch for a Britiſh or French government. The colony is not immediately under the States General, but under a company in Holland, called the Directors of Surrinam, (a company firſt formed by the States General, but now ſupplying its own vacancies) by them are appointed the governor and all the principal officers both civil and military. The interior government conſiſts of a governor, and a ſupreme and inferior council; the members of the latter are choſen by the governor from a double nomination of the principal inhabitants, and thoſe of the former in the ſame manner. By theſe powers, and by a magiſtrate preſiding over all criminal affairs, juſtice is executed, and laws are enacted neceſſary for the interior government of the colony; thoſe of a more general and public nature are enacted by the directors, and require no approbation here by the court.

The colony is guarded farther by about 1600 regular troops paid by the directors. Theſe troops, together with a corps of about 250 free negroes, paid by the court here, and another ſmall corps of chaſſeurs, and ſo many ſlaves as the court thinks fit to order from the planters, from time to time, are diſperſed at poſts placed at proper diſtances on a *Cordon*, ſurrounding the colony on the land ſide, in order, as far as poſ-

ſible, to defend the diſtant plantations and the colony in general, from the attacks of ſeveral dangerous bands of runaway ſlaves, which from very ſmall beginnings have, from the natural prolificacy of the negro race, and the continual addition of freſh fugitives, arrived at ſuch an height as to have coſt the country very great ſums of money and much loſs of men, without being able to do theſe negroes any effectual injury.*

History.] This colony was firſt poſſeſſed by the French as early as the year 1630 or 40, and was abandoned by them on account of its unhealthy climate. In the year 1650 it was taken by ſome Engliſhmen, and in 1662 a charter was granted by Cha. II. About this time it was conſiderably augmented by the ſettlement of a number of Jews, who had been driven out of Cayenne and the Brazils, whoſe deſcendants (with other Jews) compoſe at preſent one half of the white inhabitants of the colony, and are allowed great privileges. In 1667 it was taken by the Dutch, and the Engliſh having got poſſeſſion about the ſame time of the then Dutch colony of New York, each party retained its conqueſt; the Engliſh planters moſt of them retired to Jamaica, leaving their ſlaves behind them, whoſe language is ſtill Engliſh, but ſo corrupted as not to be underſtood at firſt by an Engliſhman.

ABORIGINAL AMERICA,

Or that Part which the Aboriginal Indians *poſſeſs.*

AMAZONIA.

Situation and Extent.

	Miles.		
Length	1400	between	the Equator and 20° South Latitude.
Breadth	900		

Boundaries.] Bounded north, by Terra Firma and Guiana; eaſt, by Brazil; ſouth, by Paragua; and weſt, by Peru.

Rivers.] The river Amazon is the largeſt in the known world. This river, ſo famous for the length of its courſe, that great vaſſal of the ſea, to which it brings the tribute it has received from ſo many of its own vaſſals, ſeems to be produced by innumerable torrents, which ruſh down with amazing impetuoſity from the eaſtern declivity of the Andes, and unite in a ſpacious plain to form this immenſe river. In its progreſs of 3300 miles, it receives the waters of a prodigious number of rivers, ſome of which come from far, and are very broad and deep. It is interſperſed with an infinite number of iſlands, which are too often overflowed to admit of culture. It falls into the Atlantic ocean under the equator, and is there 150 miles broad.

Climate, Soil, and Productions.] The air is cooler in this country than could be expected, conſidering it is ſituated in the torrid zone. This is partly owing to the

* The foregoing account of Surrinam was principally taken from a letter of Mr. Apthorp to his father. See American Apollo.

heavy

heavy rains which occaſion the rivers to overflow their banks one half of the year, and partly to the cloudineſs of the weather, which obſcures the ſun great part of the time he is above the horizon. During the rainy ſeaſon the country is ſubject to dreadful ſtorms of thunder and lightning.

The ſoil is extremely fertile, producing cocoa nuts, pine apples, bananas, plantains, and a great variety of tropical fruits; cedar, redwood, pak, ebony, logwood, and many other ſorts of dying wood; together with tobacco, ſugar canes, cotton, potatoes, balſam, honey, &c. The woods abound with tygers, wild boars, buffaloes, deer, and game of various kinds. The rivers and lakes abound with fiſh. Here are alſo ſea-cows and turtles; but the crocodiles and water ſerpents render fiſhing a dangerous employment.

Women.] As early as the time of Hercules and Theſeus, the Greeks had imagined the exiſtence of a nation of Amazons; with this fable they embelliſhed the hiſtory of all their heroes, not excepting that of Alexander; and the Spaniards, infatuated with this dream of antiquity, transferred it to America. They reported that a republic of female warriors actually exiſted in America, who did not live in ſociety with men, and only admitted them once a year for the purpoſes of procreation. To give the more credit to this romantic ſtory, it was reported, not without reaſon, that the women in America were all ſo unhappy, and were treated with ſuch contempt and inhumanity by the men, that many of them had agreed to ſhake off the yoke of their tyrants. It was further ſaid, that being accuſtomed to follow the men into the foreſts, and to carry their proviſions and baggage when they went out to fight or to hunt, they muſt neceſſarily have been inured to hardſhips, and rendered capable of forming ſo bold a reſolution. Since this ſtory has been propagated, infinite pains have been taken to find out the truth of it, but no traces could ever be diſcovered.

Natives.] Theſe natives, like all the other Americans, are of a good ſtature, have handſome features, long black hair, and copper complexions. They are ſaid to have a taſte for the imitative arts, eſpecially painting and ſculpture, and make good mechanics. Their cordage is made of the barks of trees, and their ſails of cotton, their hatchets of tortoiſe ſhells or hard ſtones; their chiſſels, plains, and wimbles, of the horns and teeth of wild beaſts, and their canoes are trees hollowed. They ſpin and weave cotton cloth, and build their houſes with wood and clay, and thatch them with reeds. Their arms in general are darts and javelins, bows and arrows, with targets of cane or fiſh ſkins. The ſeveral nations are governed by their chiefs or cachiques; it being obſervable that the monarchical form of government has prevailed almoſt univerſally, both among the ancient and modern barbarians, doubtleſs, on account of its requiring a much leſs refined policy than the republican ſyſtem. The regalia, which diſtinguiſh the chiefs are a crown of parrots' feathers, a chain of tygers' teeth or claws, which hangs round the waiſt, and a wooden ſword.

General Observations.] The mind of a good man is pleaſed with the reflection, that any part of South America has eſcaped the ravages of European conquerors. This country has hitherto remained unſubdued. The original inhabitants enjoy their native freedom and independence.

PATAGONIA.

PATAGONIA.

Situation and Eetent.

Miles.
Length 1100
Breadth 350
between 35° and 54° South Latitude.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED north, by Chili and Paragua; eaſt, by the Atlantic ocean; ſouth, by the Straits of Magellan; weſt, by the Pacific ocean.

Climate, Soil, and Produce.] The climate is ſaid to be much colder in this country, than in the north, under the ſame parallels of latitude; which is imputed to its being in the vicinity of the Andes, which paſs through it, being covered with eternal ſnow. It is almoſt impoſſible to ſay what the ſoil would produce, as it is not at all cultivated by the natives. The northern parts are covered with wood, among which is an inexhauſtible fund of large timber; but towards the ſouth it is ſaid there is not a ſingle tree large enough to be of uſe to mechanics. There are, however, good paſtures, which feed incredible numbers of horned cattle and horſes, firſt carried there by the Spaniards, and now increaſed in an amazing degree.

Inhabitants.] Patagonia is inhabited by a variety of Indian tribes, among which are the Patagons, from whom the country takes its name; the Pampas and the Coſſores. They all live upon fiſh and game, and what the earth produces ſpontaneouſly. Their huts are thatched, and, notwithſtanding the rigour of the climate, they wear no other clothes than a mantle made of ſeal ſkin, or the ſkin of ſome beaſt, and that they throw off when they are in action. They are exceedingly hardy, brave, and active, making uſe of their arms, which are bows and arrows headed with flints, with amazing dexterity.

Magellan, who firſt diſcovered the ſtraits which bear his name, and after him Commodore Biron, have reported, that there exiſts, in theſe regions, a race of giants; but others, who have ſailed this way, contradict the report. Upon the whole we may conclude that this ſtory is like that of the female republic of Amazons.

The Spaniards once built a fort upon the ſtraits, and left a garriſon in it to prevent any other European nation paſſing that way into the Pacific ocean; but moſt of the men periſhed by hunger, whence the place obtained the name of Port Famine; and ſince that fatal event, no nation has attempted to plant colonies in Patagonia. As to the religion or government of theſe ſavages, we have no certain information. Some have reported, that theſe people believe in inviſible powers, both good and evil; and that they pay a tribute of gratitude to the one, and deprecate the wrath and vengeance of the other.

General Obſervations upon SOUTH AMERICA.

We have now traverſed the ſeveral provinces of that extenſive region, which is comprehended between the iſthmus of Darien and the fifty-fourth degree of South latitude. We have taken a curſory view of the rivers, the ſoil, the climate, the productions, the commerce, the inhabitants, &c. It only remains now, that we ſhould make ſuch other general obſervations as naturally occur upon the ſubject.

The hiſtory of Columbus, together with his bold and adventurous actions in the diſcovery of this country, are ſufficiently known to all who have paid any attention to hiſtory.

hiſtory. His elevated mind ſuggeſted to him ideas ſuperior to any other man of his age, and his aſpiring genius prompted him to make greater and more noble efforts for new diſcoveries. He croſſed the extenſive Atlantic, and brought to view a world unheard of by the people of the ancient hemiſphere. This excited an enterpriſing, avaricious ſpirit among the inhabitants of Europe; and they flocked to America for the purpoſes of carnage and plunder. Accordingly, a ſcene of barbarity has been acted, of which South America has been the principal theatre, which ſhocks the human mind, and almoſt ſtaggers belief. No ſooner had the Spaniards ſet foot upon the American continent, than they laid claim to the ſoil, to the mines, and to the ſervices of the natives, wherever they came. Countries were invaded, kingdoms were overturned, innocence was attacked, and happineſs had no aſylum. Deſpotiſm and cruelty, with all their terrible ſcourges, attended their advances in every part. They went forth, they conquered, they ravaged, they deſtroyed. No deceit, no cruelty was too great to be made uſe of to ſatisfy their avarice. Juſtice was diſregarded, and mercy formed no part of the character of theſe inhuman conquerors. They were intent only on the proſecution of ſchemes moſt degrading and moſt ſcandalous to the human character. In South America, the kingdoms of Terra Firma, of Peru, of Chili, of Paragua, of Brazil, and of Guiana, ſucceſſively fell a ſacrifice to their vicious ambition. The hiſtory of their ſeveral reductions is too lengthy to be inſerted in a work of this kind.* Let us then turn from theſe diſtreſſing ſcenes; let us leave the political world, where nothing but ſpectacles of horror are preſented to our view; where ſcenes of blood and carnage diſtract the imagination; where the avarice, injuſtice, and inhumanity of men furniſh nothing but uneaſy ſenſations; let us leave theſe, I ſay, and enter the natural world, whoſe laws are conſtant and uniform, and where beautiful, grand, and ſublime objects continually preſent themſelves to our view.

We have already given a deſcription of thoſe beautiful and ſpacious rivers which every where interſect this country; the next thing that will engage our attention is that immenſe chain of mountains, which runs from one end of the continent to the other. At ſight of theſe enormous maſſes, which riſe to ſuch prodigious heights above the humble ſurface of the earth, where almoſt all mankind have fixed their reſidence; of thoſe maſſes, which in one part are crowned with impenetrable and ancient foreſts, that have never reſounded with the ſtroke of the hatchet, and in another, raiſe their towering tops, and ſtop the clouds in their courſe, while in other parts they keep the traveller at a diſtance from their ſummits, either by ramparts of ice that ſurround them, or from vollies of flame iſſuing forth from the frightful and yawning caverns; maſſes giving riſe to impetuous torrents deſcending with dreadful noiſe from their open ſides, to rivers, fountains, and boiling ſprings: at theſe appearances, I ſay, every beholder is fixed in aſtoniſhment.

The height of the moſt elevated point in the Pyrenees is, according to Mr. Coſſini, 6,646 feet. The height of the mountain Gemmi, in the canton of Berne, is 10,110 feet. The height of the pike of Teneriffe is 13,178 feet. The height of the Chimborazo, the moſt elevated point of the Andes, is 20,280 feet. Upon compariſon, the higheſt part of the Andes is 7,102 feet higher than the pike of Teneriffe, the moſt elevated mountain known in the ancient hemiſphere.

* The reader will find the beſt hiſtory of theſe tragical ſcenes in Dr. Robertſon's Hiſtory of South America.

THIS LIST OF

AMERICAN QUADRUPEDS

Is borrowed from Mr. PENNANT'S *Second Edition of his* ARCTIC ZOOLOGY, *page* CCLXIX *of the* INTRODUCTION. *The references are to the Second Edition of his Hiſtory of Quadrupeds, publiſhed in* 1792.——*The Editor muſt expreſs his Gratitude to Mr.* PENNANT *for his obliging Permiſſion.*

TABLE OF QUADRUPEDS.

HOOFED.

GENUS.	HIST. QUADR.	OLD WORLD.	NEW WORLD.
I. Ox.	Biſon, No. 6.	In parts of Lithuania, and about mount Caucaſus; except there, univerſally domeſticated.	To the weſt of Canada, and as low as Louiſiana. In New Mexico, on the weſtern ſide of North America.
	Muſk, No. 9.		To the north of Hudſon's Bay, from Churchill river to lat. 73, and among the Chriſtinaux, and in New Mexico.
II. Sheep.	Wild, p. 36.	Sardinia. Corſica. Crete. North of India. Perſian Alps. About the Onon and Argun, in Siberia. Mongalia, to lat. 60. Eaſt of the Lena, and quite to Kamtſchatka.	Suſpected to be found in California; but not on the beſt authorities.
III. Deer.	Mooſe, No. 42.	Norway. Sweden, to lat. 64. Ruſſia. Siberia, as low as lat. 53. As far eaſt as Lake Baikal; and in the north of China to the north of Corea. lat. 45.*	Hudſon's Bay. Canada. Nova Scotia. New England; and near the northern part of the river Ohio.
	Rein, No. 43.	Lapland. Norway. Samoiedea. Along the Arctic coaſts, to Kamtſchatka. In the Urallian mountains	Hudſon's Bay. Northern parts of Canada. Labrador. Iſland of Newfoundland.

* Or lat. 42. according to Mr. Zimmerman's new map.

GENUS.	HIST. QUADR.	OLD WORLD.	NEW WORLD.
		tains to Kungur, in lat. 57. 10. About Lake Baikal. Spitzbergen. Greenland.	
	Stag, No. 45.	Norway, and moſt part of Europe to the ſouth. In the north of Aſia. China. Barbary. E.	From Canada, over all parts of North America. Mexico.
	Great Stag	In various parts of North America; from New England, to the Allegany Chain behind Pennſylvania. It is in America uſually called the round-horned Elk. See Jefferſon, p. 88. This as yet has never been fully deſcribed. Communicated by Mr. Pennant from his MS. notes.	
	Virginian, No. 46.	— — —	From the provinces ſouth of Canada to Florida. Perhaps in Guiana.
	Mexican Roe, No. 52.	— —	Interior north weſtern parts of America? Mexico.
	Roe, No. 51.	Norway. Sweden. Moſt part of Europe, except Ruſſia. Scotland.	According to Charlevoix, in Canada?

DIGITATED.

DIV. I.

IV. Doc.	Wolf, No. 137.	From the Arctic circle to the moſt ſouthern part of Europe. In Aſia, from the circle to Perſia. Kamtſchatka. All parts of Africa.	From Hudſon's Bay to the moſt ſouthern parts of North America.
	Arctic Fox, No. 140.	Within the whole Arctic circle. Iceland. Spitzbergen. Greenland. Finmark. North of Siberia. Kamtſchatka, and its iſles.	Hudſon's Bay. The iſles in the high latitudes on the weſtern ſide of America.
	Common Fox, No. 139.	In all parts of Europe and the cold and tem-	From Hudſon's Bay, croſs the continent to the

GENUS.	HIST. QUADR.	OLD WORLD.	NEW WORLD.
		perate parts of Asia. Kamtschatka, and its furthest isles. Iceland.	Fox Isles. Labrador. Newfoundland. Canada. Not further south: a variety only, the Brandt Fox, in Pennsylvania.
	Grey, No. 142.	—	From New England to the southern end of North America.
	Silvery, No. 143.	—	In Louisiana.
V. CAT.	Puma, No. 160.	—	From Canada to Florida; thence through Mexico, quite to Quito in Peru.
	Lynx, No. 170.	Forests of the north of Europe, and many of the south. Spain. North of Asia, and the mountains in the north of India.*	From Canada, over most parts of North America.
	Bay Lynx, No. 171.	—	In the province of New York.
	Mountain, No. 168.	—	Carolina, and perhaps other parts of North America.
VI. BEAR.	Polar, No. 175.	Within the whole polar circle of Europe and Asia.	The same in America; also as low as Hudson's Bay and Labrador.
	Black, No. 174.	Jeso Masima, north of Japan; perhaps in Japan.	In all parts of North America.
	Brown, ibid.	In most parts of Europe, north and south. The same in Asia, even as far as Arabia. Barbary.† Ceylon. Kamtschatka.	To the north-west of Hudson's Bay, and on the western side of America. About Nootka Sound. On the Andes of Peru.‡
	Wolverene, No. 176.	North of Norway. Lapland. North of Siberia. Kamtschatka.	As far north as the Copper River, and south as the country between lake Huron and Superior. On the western side of North America.
	Raccoon, No. 178.	—	From New England to Florida. Mexico. Isles of Maria, near Cape Corientes, in the South Sea.

VII. BADGER.

* As I have been assured by Doctor Pallas, since the publication of my History of Quadrupeds.
† Shaw's Travels, 249.
‡ Condamine's Travels, 82.—Ulloa's Voyage, i. 461.

GENUS.	HIST. QUADR.	OLD WORLD.	NEW WORLD.
VII. BADGER.	Common, No. 179.	In the ſouth of Norway, and all the more ſouthern parts of Europe. In the temperate parts of Aſia, as far as China eaſtward. E.	In the neighbourhood of Hudſon's Bay. Terra de Labrador, and as low as Pennſylvania.
VIII. OPOSSUM.	Virginian, No. 181.	— —	As far north as Canada, and from thence to the Braſils and Peru.
IX. WEESEL.	Common, No. 192.	Moſt parts of Europe. Siberia. Kamtſchatka. Barbary. E.	Hudſon's Bay. Newfoundland. As far ſouth as Carolina.
	Stoat, No. 193.	All the northern parts of Europe and Aſia; and as far as Kamtſchatka and the Kuril iſles. E.	Hudſon's Bay, and as low as Newfoundland and Canada.
	Pine Martin, No. 200.	North of Europe. Rare in France. Only in the weſt of Siberia. In China. E.	Northern parts of North America, quite to the South Sea.
	Pekan, No. 204.	— —	Hudſon's Bay. Canada.
	Viſon, No. 205.	— —	Canada.
	Sable, No. 201.	Siberia. Kamtſchatka. Kuril iſles.	Canada.
	Fiſher, No. 202.	— —	Hudſon's Bay. New England. Pennſylvania.
	Striated, No. 217.	— —	Pennſylvania to Louiſiana.
	Skunk, No. 218.	— —	From Hudſon's Bay to Peru.
X. OTTER.	Common, No. 226.	Northern Europe and Aſia. Kamtſchatka. E.	From Hudſon's Bay to Louiſiana.
	Leſſer, No. 228.	About the banks of the Yaik. Poland. Lithuania. Finland.	From New Jerſey to Carolina.
	Sea, No. 230.	Kamtſchatka. Kuril iſles.	Weſtern coaſts of America.

DIV. II.

XI. HARE.	Varying, No. 242.	Scandinavia. Ruſſia. Siberia. Kamtſchatka. Greenland. E.	Hudſon's Bay. About Cook's river.
	American, No. 243.	— —	From Hudſon's Bay to the extremity of North America.
	Alpine, No. 248.	From the Altaic chain to lake Baikal; thence to Kamtſchatka.	Aleutian iſles. Poſſibly the weſt of North America.

GENUS.	HIST. QUADR.	OLD WORLD.	NEW WORLD.
XII. BEAVER.	Caſtor, No. 251.	Scandinavia. About the Jeneſei and Konda. In Caſan, and about the Yaik.	From Hudſon's Bay to Louiſiana.
	Muſk, No. 252.	— —	From Hudſon's Bay to Louiſiana.
XIII. PORCUPINE.	Canada, No. 257.	— —	From Hudſon's Bay to Virginia.
XIV. MARMOT.	Quebec, No. 259.	— —	Canada.
	Maryland, No. 260.	— —	From Pennſylvania to the Bahama iſles.
	Hoary, No. 261.	— —	North of North America.
	Tail-leſs, No. 265.	— —	Hudſon's Bay.
	Earleſs, No. 263.	Bohemia. Auſtria. Hungary. From the Occa over the temperate parts of Siberia. About Jakutz. Kamtſchatka.	Weſtern ſide of North America.
XV. SQUIRREL.	Hudſon, No. 274.	— —	Hudſon's Bay. Labrador.
	Grey, No. 272.	— —	New England to Peru and Chili.
	Black, No. 273.	— —	New England to Mexico.
	Flying, No. 283.	— —	From the ſouthern part of Hudſon's Bay to Mexico.
	Hooded, No. 284.	— —	Virginia.
	Severn River, No. 282.	— —	Hudſon's Bay.
XVI. DORMOUSE.	Striped, No. 286.	Siberia, as high as lat. 65.	Hudſon's Bay to Louiſiana.
	Engliſh? No. 289.	Sweden, and all Europe ſouth. E. Carolina?	
XVII. RAT.	Black, No. 297.	All Europe. Many of the South Sea iſlands. E.	The rocks among the Blue Mountains.
	Amer. No. 299.	Mongolia.	North America.
	Water, No. 300.	From Lapland to the ſouth of Europe. From Peterſburgh to Kamtſchatka, and as low as the Caſpian ſea, and Perſia. E.	From Canada to Carolina.
	Mouſe, No. 301.	Univerſal. E.	Among the rocks, with the Black Rat.
	Field, No. 302.	All Europe. Not beyond the Urallian chain. E.	Hudſon's Bay. New York.
	Virginian, No. 307.	— —	Virginia.
	Labrador, No. 295.	— —	Hudſon's Bay. Labrador.

GENUS.	HIST. QUADR.	OLD WORLD.	NEW WORLD.
	Hudſon's, No. 319.	— —	Same places.
	Meadow, No. 322.	Sweden. All temperate Ruſſia. In Siberia only to the Irtiſch. E.	Hudſon's Bay. Newfoundland.
	Hare-tailed ? No. 320.	Siberia.	Hudſon's Bay.
XVIII. SHREW.	Fœtid, No. 341.	Europe. Siberia. Kamtſchatka. E.	Hudſon's Bay. Carolina.
XIX. MOLE.	Long-tailed, No. 352.	— —	New York. Interior parts of Hudſon's Bay.
	Radiated, No. 351.	— —	New York.
	Brown, No. 353.	— —	New York.

DIV. III.

XX. WALRUS.	Arctic, No. 373.	Spitzbergen. Greenland. Nova Zemlja. The coaſt of the Frozen Sea. And on the Aſiatic ſide, to the ſouth of Behring's ſtreights, as low as lat. 62. 50.	Hudſon's Bay. Gulph of St. Laurence. On the weſtern ſide of America, as low as lat. 58. 42.
XXI. SEAL.	Common, No. 372.	All the European and northern Aſiatic ſeas, even to the fartheſt north. Kamtſchatka. E.	Northern ſeas of America.
	Rubbon, No. 380.	The Kuril iſles.	
	Great No. 382.	Greenland and Kamtſchatka. E.	Weſt of North America.
	Leporine, No. 381.	White Sea. Iceland. Spitzbergen. Kamtſchatka.	There can be no doubt that every ſpecies of Seal is found on the American coaſt.
	Hooded, No. 285.		
	Harp, No. 385.	Spitzbergen. Greenland. Iceland. White Sea. Kamtſchatka.	
	Rough, No. 283.		
	Urſine, No. 387.	Kamtſchatka. New Zealand.	Weſt of America, and from the iſle of Gallipagos to New Georgia.
	Leonine, No. 389.	Kamtſchatka.	Weſt of America. Streights of Magellan. Statenland. Falkland iſles.
XXII. MANATI	Whale-tailed, No. 390.	Behring's iſle, and near the iſle of St. Mauritius.	Weſt of America.
	Sea Ape, p. 392.	— —	Weſt of America.

DIV. IV.

GENUS.	HIST. QUADR.	OLD WORLD.	NEW WORLD.
XXIII. Bat.	New York, No. 403.	New Zealand.	New York.
	Long-haired, No. 83.	— —	Carolina.
	Noctule, No. 407.	France. E.	Hudson's Bay.

WEST INDIA ISLANDS.

BETWEEN North and South America lie a multitude of islands, which are called the West Indies, and which, such as are worth cultivation, now belong to five European powers, as Great Britain, Spain, France, Holland, and Denmark, as follows:

The BRITISH claim

Jamaica,
Barbadoes,
St. Christopher's,
Antigua,
Grenada, and the Grenadines,
Dominica,
St. Vincent,
Nevis,
Montserrat,
Barbuda,
Anguilla,
Bermudas,
The Bahama Islands.

SPAIN claims

Cuba,
Part of St. Domingo, or Hispaniola,
Porto Rico,
Trinidad,
Margaretta,
Juan Fernandes, in the Pacific Ocean.

The FRENCH claim

Part of St. Domingo,
Martinico,
Gaudalupe,
St. Lucia,
St. Bartholomew, Deseada, and Marigalante,
Tobago. *

* Since the commencement of the present war, the English nation has taken from the French the island of Tobago; and by intelligence received while this work was in the press, it appears that great part of St. Domingo has surrendered to the English arms, an example which will probably be followed by all the other French sugar islands in the West Indies.

The Dutch claim

The Iſland of St. Euſtatia,	Curaſſou, or Curacoa, Saba.

Denmark claims

The Iſlands of St. Croix,	St. Thomas, and St. John's.

The climate in all the Weſt India iſlands is nearly the ſame, allowing for theſe accidental differences which the ſeveral ſituations and qualities of the lands themſelves produce. As they lie within the tropics, and the ſun goes quite over their heads, paſſing beyond them to the north, and never returning farther from any of them than about thirty degrees to the ſouth, they would be continually ſubjected to an extreme and intolerable heat, if the trade winds, riſing gradually as the ſun gathers ſtrength, did not blow in upon them from the ſea, and refreſh the air in ſuch a manner, as to enable them to attend their concerns even under the meridian ſun. On the other hand, as the night advances, a breeze begins to be perceived, which blows ſmartly from the land, as it were from the center, towards the ſea, to all points of the compaſs at once.

By the ſame remarkable Providence in the diſpoſing of things, it is that when the ſun has made a great progreſs towards the tropic of Cancer, and becomes in a manner vertical, he draws after him ſuch a vaſt body of clouds, which ſhield them from his direct beams, and diſſolving into rain, cool the air, and refreſh the country, thirſty with the long drought, which commonly prevails from the beginning of January to the latter end of May.

The rains in the Weſt Indies are like floods of water, poured from the clouds with a prodigious impetuoſity; the rivers ſuddenly riſe; new rivers and lakes are formed, and in a ſhort time all the low country is under water.* Hence it is, that the rivers which have their ſource within the tropics, ſwell and overflow their banks at a certain ſeaſon; but ſo miſtaken were the ancients in their idea of the torrid zone, that they imagined it to be dried and ſcorched up with a continual and fervent heat, and to be for that reaſon uninhabitable; when, in reality, ſome of the largeſt rivers of the world have their courſe within its limits, and the moiſture is one of the greateſt inconveniencies of the climate in ſeveral places.

The rains make the only diſtinction of ſeaſons in the Weſt Indies; the trees are green the whole year round; they have no cold, no froſts, no ſnows, and but rarely ſome hail; the ſtorms of hail are, however, very violent when they happen, and the hailſtones very great and heavy. Whether it be owing to this moiſture, which alone does not ſeem to be a ſufficient cauſe, or to a greater quantity of a ſulphureous acid, which predominates in the air of this country, metals of all kinds that are ſubject to the action of ſuch cauſes ruſt and canker in a very ſhort time; and this cauſe, perhaps, as much as the heat itſelf, contributes to make the climate of the Weſt Indies unfriendly and unpleaſant to an European conſtitution.

It is in the rainy ſeaſon (principally in the month of Auguſt, more rarely in July and September) that they are aſſaulted by hurricanes, the moſt terrible calamity to which they are ſubject (as well as the people in the Eaſt Indies) from the climate; this deſtroys, at a ſtroke, the labours of many years, and proſtrates the moſt exalted hopes of the planter, and at the moment when he thinks himſelf out of danger. It is a ſudden and violent ſtorm of wind, rain, thunder, and lightning, attended with a furious ſwelling of the ſeas, and ſometimes with an earthquake; in ſhort, with every circumſtance which the

* See Wafer's journey acroſs the Iſthmus of Darien.

the elements can aſſemble, that is terrible and deſtructive. Firſt, they ſee a prelude to the enſuing havock, whole fields of ſugar canes whirled into the air, and ſcattered over the face of the country. The ſtrongeſt trees of the foreſt are torn up by the roots, and driven about like ſtubble; their windmills are ſwept away in a moment; their utenſils, the fixtures, the ponderous copper boilers, and ſtills of ſeveral hundred weight are wrenched from the ground, and battered to pieces; their houſes are no protection; the rooſs are torn off at one blaſt; whilſt the rain, which in an hour raiſes the water five feet, ruſhes in upon them with an irreſiſtible violence.

The grand ſtaple commodity of the Weſt Indies is ſugar; this commodity was not at all known to the Greeks and Romans, though it was made in China, in very early times, from whence was derived the firſt knowledge of it; but the Portugueſe were the firſt who cultivated it in America, and brought it into requeſt, as one of the materials of a very univerſal luxury in Europe. It is not determined whether the cane, from which this ſubſtance is taken, be a native of America, or brought thither to their colony of Brazil, by the Portugueſe, from India and the coaſt of Africa; but, however that matter may be, in the beginning they made the moſt, as they ſtill do the beſt, ſugars which come to market in this part of the world. The juice within the ſugar cane is the moſt lively, excellent, and the leaſt cloying ſweet in nature; which, ſucked raw, has proved extremely nutritive and wholeſome. From the molaſſes, rum is diſtilled, and from the ſcummings of the ſugar a meaner ſpirit is procured. The tops of the canes, and the leaves which grow upon the joints, make very good provender for their cattle; and the refuſe of the cane, after grinding, ſerves for fire; ſo that no part of this excellent plant is without its uſe.

They compute that, when things are well managed, the rum and molaſſes pay the charges of the plantation, and the ſugars are clear gain. However, a man cannot begin a ſugar plantation of any conſequence, not to mention the purchaſe of the land, which is very high, under a capital of at leaſt 5000l.

The quantity of rum and molaſſes exported from all the Britiſh Weſt India iſlands, in 1787, 1788, and 1789, to all parts, was, accurately, as follows:

		Gallons.		Gallons.	
1787	Rum -	5,496,147	of which	1,660,155	came to the United States.
	Molaſſes	30,580	do.	4,200	do.
1788	Rum -	6,770,332	do.	1,541,093	do.
	Molaſſes	28,812	do.	3,928	do.
1789	Rum	9,492,177	do.	1,485,461	do.
	Molaſſes	21,192	do.	1,000	do. *

The negroes in the plantations are ſubſiſted at a very eaſy rate. This is generally by allotting to each family of them a ſmall portion of land, and allowing them two days in the week, Saturday and Sunday, to cultivate it; ſome are ſubſiſted in this manner, but others find their negroes a certain portion of Guinea or Indian corn, and to ſome a ſalt herring, or a ſmall portion of bacon or ſalt pork, a day. All the reſt of the charge conſiſts in a cap, a ſhirt, a pair of breeches, and a blanket; and the profit of their labour yields ten or twelve pounds annually. The price of men negroes, upon their firſt arrival, is from thirty to thirty-ſix pounds, women and grown boys fifty ſhillings leſs; but ſuch negro families as are acquainted with the buſineſs of the iſlands generally

* Mr. Baillie, in his debate on the motion for the abolition of the ſlave trade, April, 1792, aſſerts—that the exports and imports to and from the Weſt India iſlands and Africa, amount annually to 10,000,000l. ſterling, which gives employment to 300,000 tons of ſhipping, and about 25,000 ſeamen.

bring above forty pounds upon an average one with another; and there are inſtances of a ſingle negro man, expert in the buſineſs, bringing one hundred and fifty guineas; and the wealth of a planter is generally computed from the number of ſlaves he poſſeſſes.

The iſlands of the Weſt Indies lie in the form of a bow, or ſemi-circle, ſtretching almoſt from the coaſt of Florida north, to the river Oronoko, in the main continent of South America. Some call them the Caribbees, from the firſt inhabitants; though this is a term that moſt geographers confine to the Leeward Iſlands. Sailors diſtinguiſh them into the Windward and Leeward iſlands, with regard to the uſual courſes of ſhips, from Old Spain, or the Canaries, to Carthagena, or New Spain and Porto Bello. The geographical tables and maps diſtinguiſh them into Great and Little Antilles.

BRITISH WEST INDIES.*

JAMAICA.

THIS iſland, the moſt valuable appendage to the Britiſh dominions in America, is one hundred and eighty miles long and ſixty broad; of an oval form, lying between 17° 34′ North latitude, and about the longitude of Philadelphia: containing 3,500,000 acres of land; 600,000 of which are cleared, and about 400,000 cultivated.

DIVISIONS AND POPULATION.] Jamaica is divided as follows:

Counties.	Pariſhes.	Towns and Villages.	Acres.	Inhabitants.
Middleſex	8	15	1,305,235	
Surry	7	12	672,616	23,000 Whites.
Cornwall	5	10	1,512,149	300,000 Negroes.
Total Three	20	37	3,500,000	323,000

This iſland is interſected with a ridge of ſteep rocks, tumbling, by the frequent earthquakes, in a ſtupendous manner upon one another. From the rocks iſſue a vaſt number of ſmall rivers of pure wholeſome water, which fall down in cataracts, and, together with the ſtupendous height of the mountains, and the bright verdure of the trees through which they flow, form a moſt delightful landſcape. On each ſide of this chain of mountains are ridges of lower ones, which diminiſh as they remove from it. On theſe, coffee grows in great plenty. The vallies and plains between theſe ridges are level, and the ſoil is prodigiouſly fertile.

* If the reader is deſirous of the fulleſt information concerning ſuch part of the Weſt India iſlands as belong to Great Britain, he is referred to the very extenſive and valuable hiſtory of thoſe iſlands, by Bryan Edwards, Eſq, publiſhed in 1793, by Mr. Stockdale.

The longeſt day in ſummer is about thirteen hours, and the ſhorteſt in winter about eleven; but the moſt uſual diviſions of the ſeaſons in the Weſt Indies are into the dry and wet ſeaſons. The air of this iſland is in moſt places exceſſively hot, and unfavourable to European conſtitutions; but the cool ſea breezes, which ſet in every morning at ten o'clock, render the heat more tolerable; and the air upon the high grounds is temperate, pure, and cooling. It lightens almoſt every night, but without much thunder, which when it happens is terrible, and roars with aſtoniſhing loudneſs; and the lightning in theſe violent ſtorms frequently does great damage. In February or March, they expect earthquakes. During the months of May and October, the rains are extremely violent, and continue ſometimes for a fortnight together.—In the plains are found ſeveral ſalt fountains; and in the mountains, not far from Spaniſh Town, is a hot bath, of great medicinal virtues: it gives relief in the dry belly-ach, which, excepting the bilious and yellow fever, is one of the moſt terrible endemial diſtempers of Jamaica.

Sugar is the greateſt and moſt valuable production of this iſland. In 1787, 824,706 cwt. of this article was exported to Great Britain; and in 1790, 1,185,519 cwt. Cocoa was formerly cultivated in it to great extent. It produces alſo ginger and the pimento, or, as it is called, Jamaica pepper, and vulgarly allſpice; the wild cinnamon tree, whoſe bark is ſo uſeful in medicine; the machineel, whoſe fruit, though uncommonly delightful to the eye, contains one of the worſt poiſons in nature; the mahogany, and of the moſt valuable quality; but this wood begins to be ſcarce, and of late is very dear. Excellent cedars, of a large ſize and durable; the cabbage tree, remarkable for the hardneſs of its wood, which, when dry, is incorruptible, and hardly yields to any kind of tool; the palma, affording oil, much eſteemed by the ſavages, both in food and medicine; the ſoap tree, whoſe berries anſwer all purpoſes of waſhing; the mangrove and olive bark, uſeful to tanners; the ſuſtic and redwood to the dyers; and lately the logwood. The indigo plant was formerly much cultivated, and the cotton tree is ſtill ſo. They have maize, or Indian corn, Guinea corn, peas of various kinds, with a variety of roots. Fruits grow in great plenty; citrons, Seville and China oranges, common and ſweet lemons, limes, ſhadocks, pomegranates, mamees, ſourſops, papas, pine apples, prickly pears, allicada pears, melons, pompions, guavas, and ſeveral kinds of berries; alſo garden ſtuffs in great plenty, and good. The cattle bred on this iſland are but few; their beef is tough and lean; the mutton and lamb are tolerable; they have plenty of hogs; many plantations have hundreds of them, and their fleſh is exceedingly ſweet and delicate. Their horſes are ſmall, mettleſome and hardy, and when well made generally ſell for thirty or forty pounds ſterling. Jamaica likewiſe ſupplies the apothecary with guaiacum, ſarſaparilla, china, caſſia, and tamarinds. Among the animals are the land and ſea turtle, and the alligator. Here are all ſorts of fowl, wild and tame, parrots, parroquets, pelicans, ſnipes, teal, Guinea hens, geeſe, ducks, and turkies, the humming bird, and a great variety of others. The rivers and bays abound with fiſh. The mountains breed numberleſs adders, and other noxious animals, as the fens and marſhes do the guana and gallewaſp; but theſe laſt are not venomous. Among the inſects are the ciror, or chegoe, which eat into the nervous and membranous parts of the fleſh of the negroes, and the white people are ſometimes plagued with them. Theſe inſects get into any parts of the body, but chiefly the legs and feet, where they breed in great numbers, and ſhut themſelves up in a bag; as ſoon as the perſon feels them, which is not perhaps till a week after they have been in the body, they pick them out with a needle or the point of a penknife, taking

taking care to deſtroy the bag entirely, that none of the breed, which are like nits, may be left behind. They ſometimes get into the toes and eat the fleſh to the very bone.

Port Royal was formerly the capital of Jamaica. It ſtood upon the point of a narrow neck of land, which, towards the ſea, formed part of the border of a very fine harbour of its own name. The convenience of this harbour, which was capable of containing a thouſand ſail of large ſhips, and of ſuch depth as to allow them to load and unload with the greateſt eaſe, weighed ſo much with the inhabitants, that they choſe to build their capital on this ſpot, though the place was a hot dry ſand, and produced none of the neceſſaries of life, not even freſh water. But the advantage of its harbour, and the reſort of pirates, made it a place of great conſideration. Theſe pirates were called Buccaneers; they fought with a deſperate bravery, and then ſpent their fortune in this capital with as inconſiderate diſſipation. About the year 1692, no place for its ſize could be compared to this town for trade, wealth, and an entire corruption of manners. In the month of June, in this year, an earthquake, which ſhook the whole iſland to its foundations, totally overwhelmed this city, ſo as to leave in one quarter, not even the ſmalleſt veſtige remaining. In two minutes the earth opened and ſwallowed up nine tenths of the houſes, and two thouſand people. The water guſhed out from the openings of the earth, and tumbled the people on heaps; but ſome of them had the good fortune to catch the beams and rafters of houſes, and were afterwards ſaved by boats. Several ſhips were caſt away in the harbour; and the Swan frigate, which lay in the dock to careen, was carried over the tops of ſinking houſes, and did not overſet, but afforded a retreat to ſome hundreds of people, who ſaved their lives upon her. An officer who was in the town at this time, ſays, the earth opened and ſhut very quick in ſome places, and he ſaw ſeveral people ſink down to the middle, and others appeared with their heads juſt above ground and were ſqueezed to death. At Savannah, above a thouſand acres were ſunk, with the houſes and people in them; the place appeared for ſome time like a lake, was afterwards dried up, but no houſes were ſeen. In ſome parts mountains were ſplit; and at one place a plantation was removed to the diſtance of a mile. They again rebuilt the city; but it was a ſecond time, ten years after, deſtroyed by a great fire. The extraordinary convenience of the harbour tempted them to build it once more; and once more, in 1782, was it laid in rubbiſh by a hurricane the moſt terrible on record. Such repeated calamities ſeemed to mark out this place as a devoted ſpot; the inhabitants therefore reſolved to forſake it for ever, and to reſide at the oppoſite bay, where they built Kingſton, which is now the capital of this iſland. It conſiſts of upwards of one thouſand houſes, many of them handſomely built, and in the taſte of theſe iſlands, as well as the neighbouring continent, one ſtory high, with porticoes, and every convenience for a comfortable habitation in that climate. Not far from Kingſton ſtands St. Jago de le Vega, or Spaniſh Town, which, though at preſent inferior to Kingſton, was once the capital of Jamaica, and is ſtill the ſeat of government, and the place where the courts of juſtice are held.

On the 3d of October, 1780, was a dreadful hurricane, which almoſt overwhelmed the little ſeaport town of Savannah le Mer, in Jamaica, and a part of the adjacent country. Very few houſes were left ſtanding, and a great number of people were killed. Much damage was alſo done, and many lives loſt, in other parts of the iſland.

The whole product of the iſland may be reduced to theſe heads. Firſt, ſugars, of which they exported in 1787, 824,706 cwt.—1788, 1,124,017 cwt.—1789, 1,236,603 cwt.

cwt.—1790, 1,185,519 cwt. Moſt of this goes to London, Briſtol, and Glaſgow, and ſome part of it into the United States, in return for the beef, pork, cheeſe, corn, peas, ſtaves, planks, pitch and tar, which they have from thence. Second, rum, of which they export about 4000 puncheons annually. The rum of this iſland is generally eſteemed the beſt, and is the moſt uſed in Great Britain. Third, molaſſes, in which they formerly made their remittances for the produce of the grand ſtaple the ſugar cane. According to the late teſtimony of a reſpectable planter in Jamaica, that iſland hath 280,000 acres in canes, of which 210,000 are annually cut, and make from 68 to 70,000 tons of ſugar, and 4,200,000 gallons of rum. Fourth, cotton, of which they ſend out two thouſand bags. The indigo, formerly much cultivated, is now inconſiderable; but ſome cocoa and coffee are exported, with a conſiderable quantity of pepper, ginger, drugs for dyers and apothecaries, ſweetmeats, mahogany and machineel planks. But ſome of the moſt conſiderable articles of their trade are with the Spaniſh continent of New Spain and Terra Firma; for in the former they cut great quantities of logwood, and both in the former and latter they carry on a vaſt and profitable trade in negroes and all kinds of European goods.

This iſland was originally a part of the Spaniſh empire in America. Several deſcents had been made upon it by the Engliſh, prior to 1656; but it was not till this year that Jamaica was reduced under the Britiſh dominion. Cromwell had fitted out a ſquadron, under Penn and Venables, to reduce the Spaniſh iſland of Hiſpaniola, but there this ſquadron was unſucceſsful. The commanders, of their own accord, to atone for this misfortune, made a deſcent on Jamaica, and having carried the capital, St. Jago, ſoon compelled the whole iſland to ſurrender. Ever ſince it has been ſubject to the Engliſh, and the government of it is one of the richeſt places, next to that of Ireland, in the diſpoſal of the crown, the ſtanding ſalary being 2,500l. per annum, and the aſſembly commonly voting the governor as much more; which, with the other perquiſites, make it on the whole little inferior to 10,000l. per annum.

BARBADOES.

This iſland, the moſt eaſterly of all the Caribbees, is ſituated in 59 degrees Weſt longitude, and 13 degrees North latitude. It is twenty-one miles in length, and fourteen in breadth. When the Engliſh, ſome time after the year 1625, firſt landed here, it had not the leaſt appearance of ever having been peopled even by ſavages. There was no kind of beaſts, no fruit, no herb nor root, fit for ſupporting the life of man; yet, as the climate was ſo good, and the ſoil appeared fertile, ſome gentlemen of ſmall fortunes in England reſolved to become adventurers thither. The trees were ſo large, and of a wood ſo hard and ſtubborn, that it was with great difficulty they could clear as much ground as was neceſſary for their ſubſiſtence. By unremitting perſeverance, however, they brought it to yield them a tolerable ſupport; and they found that cotton and indigo agreed well with the ſoil, and that tobacco, which was beginning to come into repute in England, anſwered tolerably well. Theſe proſpects, together with the ſtorm between the king and parliament, which was beginning to break out in England, induced many new adventurers to tranſport themſelves to this iſland. And what is remarkable, twenty-five years after its firſt ſettlement, in 1650, it contained more than 50,000 whites, and a much greater number of negro and Indian ſlaves; the latter they acquired by means not at all to their honour; for they ſeized upon all thoſe unhappy men, without any pretence, in the neighbouring iſlands, and carried them into ſlavery; a practice, which has rendered the Caribbee Indians irreconcileable

concileable to the Engliſh ever ſince. They had begun, a little before this, to cultivate ſugar to great advantage. The number of ſlaves was, in conſequence of their wealth, ſtill augmented; and in 1676, it is ſuppoſed that their number amounted to 100,000, which, together with 50,000 whites, make 150,000 on this ſmall ſpot, a degree of population unknown in Holland, in China, or any other part of the world moſt renowned for numbers.

At this time Barbadoes employed 400 ſail of ſhips, one with another of 150 tons, in their trade. Their annual exports in ſugar, indigo, ginger, cotton, and citron water, were about 350,000l. and their circulating caſh at home was 200,000l. Such was the increaſe of population, trade, and wealth, in the courſe of fifty years. But ſince that time, this iſland has been much on the decline, which is to be attributed partly to the growth of the French ſugar colonies, and partly to the other Engliſh eſtabliſhments in the neighbouring iſles. Their numbers at preſent are ſaid to be 20,000 whites, and 100,000 ſlaves. Their commerce conſiſts in the ſame articles as formerly, though they deal in them to leſs extent. In 1787 they exported to Great Britain upwards of 130,000 cwt. of ſugar, and in 1790, but about 113,000 cwt. Their capital is Bridgetown, where the governor reſides, whoſe employment is ſaid to be worth 5000l. per annum. They have a college, founded and well endowed by Colonel Codrington, who was a native of this iſland. Barbadoes, as well as Jamaica, has ſuffered much by hurricanes, fire, and the plague. On the 10th of October, 1780, a dreadful hurricane occaſioned vaſt devaſtation in Barbadoes, great numbers of the houſes were deſtroyed, not one houſe in the iſland was wholly free from damage, many perſons were buried in the ruins of the buildings, and great numbers were driven into the ſea, and there periſhed.

ST. CHRISTOPHER's.

This iſland, commonly called by the ſailors St. Kitt's, is ſituated in 62 degrees Weſt longitude, and 17 degrees North latitude, about fourteen leagues from Antigua, and is twenty miles long, and ſeven broad. It has its name from the famous Chriſtopher Columbus, who diſcovered it for the Spaniards. That nation, however, abandoned it, as unworthy of their attention; and, in 1626, it was ſettled by the French and Engliſh conjunctly; but entirely ceded to the latter by the peace of Utrecht. Beſides cotton, ginger, and the tropical fruits, it produced, in 1787, 231,397 cwt. of ſugar, and in 1790, but about 113,000 cwt. It is computed that this iſland contains 6000 whites and 36,000 negroes. In February, 1782, it was taken by the French, but reſtored to England by the treaty of 1783.

ANTIGUA.

Situated in 61 degrees Weſt longitude, and 17 degrees North latitude, is of a circular form, near twenty miles over every way. This iſland, which was formerly thought uſeleſs, has now got the ſtart of the reſt. It has one of the beſt harbours in the Weſt Indies; and its capital St. John's, which, before the fire in 1769, was large and wealthy, is the ordinary ſeat of the governor of the Leeward iſlands. Antigua is ſuppoſed to contain about 7000 whites, and 30,000 ſlaves. In 1787. 254,706 cwt. of ſugar was ſent from this iſland to Great Britain, and in 1790, only 65,022 cwt.

GRENADA

GRENADA AND THE GRENADINES.

Grenada is ſituated in 12° North lat. and 62° Weſt lon. about thirty leagues S.W. of Barbadoes, and almoſt the ſame diſtance north of Andaluſia, or the Spaniſh Main. This iſland is ſaid to be thirty miles in length, and fifteen in breadth. Experience has proved, that the ſoil of this iſland is extremely proper for producing ſugar, coffee, tobacco, and indigo; and upon the whole it carries with it all the appearance of becoming as flouriſhing a colony as any in the Weſt Indies, of its dimenſions. A lake on the top of a hill, in the middle of the iſland, ſupplies it plentifully with fine rivers, which adorn and fertilize it. Several bays and harbours lie round the iſland, ſome of which may be fortified with great advantage, which render it very convenient for ſhipping; and has the happineſs of not being ſubject to hurricanes. St. George's Bay has a ſandy bottom, and is capacious, but open. In its harbour, or careening place, 100 large veſſels may be moored with perfect ſafety. This iſland was long the theatre of bloody wars between the native Indians and the French, during which theſe handful of Caribbees defended themſelves with the moſt reſolute bravery. In the laſt war but one, when Grenada was attacked by the Engliſh, the French inhabitants, who were not very numerous, were ſo amazed at the reduction of Guadalupe and Martinico, that they loſt all ſpirit, and ſurrendered without making the leaſt oppoſition; and the full property of this iſland, together with the ſmall iſlands on the north, called the Grenadines, which yield the ſame produce, were confirmed to the crown of Great Britain by the treaty of Paris in 1763. But in July 1779, the French made themſelves maſters of this iſland, though it was reſtored to Great Britain by the late treaty of peace. In 1787, 172,880 cwt. of ſugar was exported from theſe iſlands to Great Britain, and in 1790, 191,625 cwt.

DOMINICA,

Situated in 16° N. lat. and in 62° W. lon. lies about half way between Guadalupe and Martinico. It is near twenty-eight miles in length, and thirteen in breadth; it obtained its name from being diſcovered by Columbus on a Sunday. The ſoil of this iſland is thin, and better adapted to the rearing of cotton than ſugar; but the ſides of the hills bear the fineſt trees in the Weſt Indies, and the iſland is well ſupplied with rivulets of good water. By the peace of Paris, in 1763, it was ceded to the Engliſh; but they have derived little advantage from this conqueſt, the iſland being, till lately, no better than a harbour for the natives of the other Caribbees, who being expelled their own ſettlements, have taken refuge here. But, on account of its ſituation between the principal French iſlands, and Prince Rupert's Bay being one of the moſt capacious in the Weſt Indies, it has been judged expedient to form Dominica into a government of itſelf, and to declare it a free port. It was taken by the French in 1778; but it was reſtored again to Great Britain by the late peace. It exported to Great Britain, in 1790, upwards of 50,000 cwt. of ſugar, and conſiderably more in 1787.

ST. VINCENT.

Situated in 13° N. lat. and 61° W. long. 50 miles north-weſt of Barbadoes, 30 miles ſouth of St. Lucia, is about 24 miles in length, and 18 in breadth. It is very fruitful, being a black mould upon a ſtrong loam, the moſt proper for the raiſing of ſugar. Indigo thrives here remarkably well; but this article is leſs cultivated than

than formerly throughout the Weſt Indies. Many of the inhabitants are Caribbeans, and many here alſo fugitive, from Barbadoes and the other iſlands.

The Caribbeans were treated with ſo much injuſtice and barbarity, after this iſland came into poſſeſſion of the Engliſh, to whom it was ceded by the peace in 1763, that they greatly contributed towards enabling the French to get poſſeſſion of it again in 1779; but it was reſtored to Great Britain by the late treaty of peace. It ſent to Great Britain in 1790, 76,747 cwt. of ſugar.

NEVIS AND MONTSERRAT.

Two ſmall iſlands lying between St. Chriſtopher's and Antigua, neither of them exceeding 18 miles in circumference, and are ſaid to contain 5000 whites, and 10,000 ſlaves. The ſoil in theſe four iſlands is pretty much alike, light and ſandy, but notwithſtanding fertile in an high degree; and their principal exports are derived from the ſugar cane. Both theſe iſlands were taken by the French in 1782, but were reſtored at the peace. They ſent to Great Britain, in 1787, 108,324 cwt. of ſugar, but much leſs in 1790.

BARBUDA.

Situated 17° 49′ N. lat. 61° 50′ W. long. 35 miles north of Antigua, is 20 miles in length, and 12 in breadth. It is fertile, and has a good road for ſhipping, but no direct trade with England. The inhabitants are chiefly employed in huſbandry, and raiſing freſh proviſions for the uſe of the neighbouring iſles. It belongs to the Codrington family, and the inhabitants amount to about 1500.

ANGUILLA.

Situated in 18° N. lat. 60 miles N. W. of St. Chriſtopher's, is about 50 miles long, and 10 broad. This iſland is perfectly level, and the climate nearly the ſame with that of Jamaica. The inhabitants, who are not numerous, apply themſelves to huſbandry and feeding of cattle.

BERMUDAS, OR SOMMERS' ISLANDS.

Theſe received their firſt name from their being diſcovered by John Bermudas, a Spaniard; and were called Sommers' Iſlands from Sir George Sommers, who was ſhipwrecked on their rocks, in 1609, in his paſſage to Virginia. They are ſituated, at a vaſt diſtance from any continent, in 32° N. lat. and in 65° W. long. Their diſtance from the Madeiras is about 1200 leagues, and from Carolina 300. They are nearly in the form of a ſhepherd's crook; the main iſland is about 16 miles in length, and from one to two in breadth. The pariſh of St. George's is an iſland to the eaſtward of the main land, on which ſtands the town of St. George's, containing about 500 houſes. Contiguous to this is the iſland of St. David's, which ſupplies the town with butter, milk, vegetables, poultry, and freſh meat. In the boſom of the crook lie a vaſt number of ſmall iſlands, uninhabited. The iſland is rocky, and the ground hilly. In the main road a ſulky may paſs; and even there, in many places, with difficulty; but turn to the right or left, and it is paſſable only on horſeback. The air is healthy; a continual ſpring prevails: cedars, mantled in green, always adorn the hills: the paſture ground is ever verdant; the gardens ever in bloom. Moſt of the productions of the

the Weſt Indies might be here cultivated. The houſes are built of a ſoft ſtone, which is ſawn like timber; when expoſed to the weather, and waſhed with lime, it becomes hard. The houſes are white as ſnow, which, beheld from an eminence, contraſted with the greenneſs of the cedars and paſture ground, and the multitude of iſlands, full in view, realize what the Poets have feigned concerning the Elyſian fields. The inhabitants are numerous; the whole iſland is a continued village; no leſs, perhaps, than 15 or 20,000 are collected on this ſmall ſpot. The blacks are twice as numerous as the whites. Happy for the country, were the colour unknown among them! The Bermudians are chiefly ſeafaring people; few of the men are ever at home; 3 or 400 go annually to Turk's Iſland to rake ſalt, which is carried to America for proviſions, or ſold to ſuch as may call at Turk's Iſland, for caſh. However induſtrious the men are abroad, at home they are indolent; much given, particularly of late, to gambling and luxury. The women are generally handſome and comely; they love their huſbands, their children, and their dreſs. Dancing is their favourite amuſement. The men muſt be equipped in taſte when they appear in company, ſhould they not have a dollar in the pound to pay their creditors; the women muſt array themſelves like the belles of Paris, ſhould they not have a morſel of bread to preſerve their blooming complexion. They are thoroughly acquainted with one another's families, and from their tea tables, as from their atmoſphere, ariſes conſtant guſts of ſcandal and detraction. To ſtrangers they are kind, but among themſelves are quarrelſome: their friendly intercourſe is too much confined within a narrow circle, bounded by couſins or ſecond couſins.

The common food of the Bermudians is coffee, fiſh of different kinds, a ſweet potatoe, Indian corn, and American flour. Their water is rain preſerved in ciſterns; the general drink is grog. The men are amphibious animals; from their being a yard long they ſwim out of their depth, and fiſhing is their favourite amuſement when grown up. The government is conducted under a governor named by the crown of England, a council, and general aſſembly. The eſtabliſhed religion is Epiſcopacy. There are nine churches; three clergymen have the charge of theſe nine: there is one Preſbyterian church. A regard for religion is not the characteriſtic of the Bermudians; they ſeldom go to church, except it be to attend a funeral, or get their children baptiſed, or to hear a ſtranger.*

LUCAY'S, OR BAHAMA ISLANDS.

The Bahamas are ſituated between 22 and 27 degrees North latitude, and 73 and 81 degrees Weſt longitude. They extend along the coaſt of Florida quite down to Cuba, and are ſaid to be 500 in number, ſome of them only rocks, but twelve of them are large and fertile; all are, however, uninhabited, except Providence, which is 200 miles eaſt of the Floridas; though ſome others are larger and more fertile, on which the Engliſh have plantations.

Theſe iſlands were the firſt fruits of Columbus's diſcoveries; but they were not known to the Engliſh till 1667. The Iſle of Providence became an harbour for the buccaneers, or pirates, who for a long time infeſted the American navigation. This obliged the government, in 1718, to ſend out Captain Woodes Rogers with a fleet to diſlodge the pirates, and for making a ſettlement. This the captain effected; a fort was erected, and an independent company was ſtationed in the iſland. Ever ſince this

* The foregoing deſcription of theſe iſlands was ſent the author by an intelligent gentleman, who had reſided a number of years in Bermuda.

laſt ſettlement, theſe iſlands have been improving, though they advance but ſlowly. In time of war, people gain conſiderably by the prizes condemned there; and at all times by the wrecks, which are frequent in this labyrinth of rocks and ſhelves. The Spaniards and Americans captured theſe iſlands during the laſt war, but they were retaken by a detachment from St. Auguſtine, April 7th, 1783.

FALKLAND ISLANDS.

Though theſe are not among the Weſt India Iſlands, we ſhall mention them in this place. They lie in the 52d degree of ſouth latitude, near the Straits of Magellan, at the utmoſt extremity of South America.

Falkland Iſlands were firſt diſcovered by Sir Richard Hawkins in 1594, the principal of which he named Hawkins' Maidenland, in honour of Queen Elizabeth. The preſent Engliſh name Falkland was probably given them by Captain Strong, in 1689, and, being adopted by Halley, it has from that time been received into maps. Captain M'Bride, who viſited them in 1766, thus deſcribes them: "We found," ſays he, "a maſs of iſlands and broken lands, of which the ſoil was nothing but a bog, with no better proſpect than that of barren mountains, beaten by ſtorms almoſt perpetual. Yet this is ſummer; and if the winds of winter hold their natural proportion, thoſe who lie but two cables length from the ſhore, muſt paſs weeks without any communication with it." The plants and vegetables which were planted by Mr. Byron's people, and the fir trees, a native of rugged and cold climates, had withered away; but goats, ſheep, and hogs, that were carried thither, were found to thrive and increaſe as in other places. Geeſe, of a fiſhy taſte, ſnipes, foxes, ſea lions, penguins, plenty of good water, and, in the ſummer months, wild celery and ſorrel, are the natural luxuries of theſe iſlands. But though the ſoil be barren, and the ſea tempeſtuous, an Engliſh ſettlement was made here, of which they were diſpoſſeſſed by the Spaniards in 1770.

SPANISH WEST INDIES.

CUBA.

THE iſland of Cuba is ſituated between 19° and 23° N. lat. and between 74° and 87° W. long. 100 miles to the ſouth of Cape Florida, and 75 miles north of Jamaica, and is nearly 700 miles in length, and generally about 70 miles in breadth. A chain of hills runs through the middle of the iſland from eaſt to weſt; but the land near the ſea is in general level and flooded in the rainy ſeaſon, when the ſun is vertical. This noble iſland is ſuppoſed to have the beſt ſoil, for ſo large a country, of any in America: it produces all the commodities known in the Weſt Indies, particularly ginger, long pepper, and other ſpices, caſſia, fiſtula, maſtich, and aloes. It alſo produces tobacco and ſugar; but from the want of hands, and the lazineſs of the Spaniards, not in ſuch quantities as might be expected. It is owing to the ſame cauſe

that this large iſland does not produce, including all its commodities, ſo much for exportation as the ſmall iſland of Antigua.

The courſe of the rivers is too ſhort to be of any conſequence to navigation; but there are ſeveral good harbours in the iſland, which belong to the principal towns, as that of St. Jago, facing Jamaica, ſtrongly ſituated and well fortified, but neither populous nor rich. That of the Havannah, facing Florida, which is the capital of Cuba, and a place of great ſtrength and importance, containing about 2000 houſes, with a great number of churches and convents. It was taken, however, by the Engliſh in the year 1762, but reſtored in the ſubſequent treaty of peace. Beſides theſe, there is alſo Cumberland harbour, and that of Santa Cruz, a conſiderable town thirty miles eaſt of the Havannah.

HISPANIOLA, OR ST. DOMINGO.

This iſland was at firſt poſſeſſed by the Spaniards alone; but by far the moſt conſiderable part is now in the hands of the French; however, as the Spaniards were the original poſſeſſors, and ſtill continue to have a ſhare in it, Hiſpaniola is commonly regarded as a Spaniſh iſland.

It is ſituated between the 17th and 21ſt degrees N. lat. and the 67th and 74th of W. long. lying in the middle between Cuba and Porto Rico, and is 450 miles long, and 150 broad. When Hiſpaniola was firſt diſcovered by Columbus, the number of its inhabitants was computed to be at leaſt one million. But ſuch was the cruelty of the Spaniards, and to ſo infamous a height did they carry their oppreſſion of the poor natives, that they were reduced to ſixty thouſand in the ſpace of fifteen years. The face of the iſland preſents an agreeable variety of hills, vallies, woods, and rivers; and the ſoil is allowed to be extremely fertile, producing ſugar, cotton, indigo, tobacco, maize, and caſſava root. The European cattle are ſo multiplied here, that they run wild in the woods, and, as in South America, are hunted for their hides and tallow only. In the moſt barren parts of the rocks, they diſcovered formerly ſilver and gold. The mines, however, are not worked now. The north-weſt parts, which are in the poſſeſſion of the French, conſiſt of large fruitful plains, which produce the articles already mentioned in vaſt abundance. This indeed is the beſt and moſt fruitful part of the beſt and moſt fertile iſland in the Weſt Indies, and perhaps in the world.

The moſt ancient town in this iſland, and in all America, built by Europeans, is St. Domingo. It was founded by Bartholomew Columbus, brother to the admiral, in 1504, who gave it that name in honour of his father Dominic, and by which the whole iſland is ſometimes named. It is ſituated on a ſpacious harbour, and is a large well-built city, inhabited, like the other Spaniſh towns, by a mixture of Europeans, Creoles, Meſtizos, and Negroes.

The French towns are Cape François, the capital, containing, ſeveral years ago, about 8000 white and blacks. Leogane, though inferior in point of ſize, is a good port, a place of conſiderable trade, and the ſeat of the French government in that iſland. They have two other towns, conſiderable for their trade, Petit Guaves, and Port Louis.

The following is ſaid to be an exact ſtatement of the product, population, and commerce of the French colony of Hiſpaniola, in the year 1788, and may ſerve to ſhew the immenſe loſſes ſuſtained by the late inſurrection of the negroes.

POPULATION.] White people 27,717; viz. 9,699 men; 2,401 males above 12 years old; 2,296 under 12 years; 1,269 huſbandmen of plantations; 1,832 plantation managers;

nagers; 325 ſugar refiners; 308 phyſicians; 510 mechanics; 614 clerks; two white ſervants; 8,511 women and girls.

Free people of colour 21,808; of which 3,493 were men; 2,892 males above 12 years; 2,892 under 12; 2,700 ſervants; 9,833 women or girls; ſlaves 405,528.

PLANTATIONS AND MANUFACTORIES.] Sugar 792; indigo 3,097; cotton 705; coffee 2,810; diſtilleries 173; brick and potter's ware 63; cocoa 69; tanners 3.

PRODUCTIONS EXPORTED TO FRANCE.

70,227,709	pounds of	White Sugar,	930,016	pounds of	Indigo,
93,177,518	ditto	Brut ditto,	6,286,126	ditto	Cotton,
68,151,181	ditto	Coffee,	12,995		Dreſſed Skins.

SOLD TO AMERICAN, ENGLISH, AND DUTCH SMUGGLERS.

25,000,000	pounds of	Brut Sugars,	3,000,000	pounds of	Cotton.
12,000,000	ditto	Coffee,			

The molaſſes exported in American bottoms, valued at 1,000,000 dollars; precious wood, exported in French ſhips, 200,000 dollars.

TRADE.] Five hundred and eighty large ſhips, carrying 189,679 tons, in which the imports amounted to 12,000,000 dollars, of which more than 8,000,000 dollars were in manufactured goods of France, and the other 4,000,000 in French produce.

The Spaniſh ſhips exported in French goods or money 1,400,000 dollars, for mules imported by them into the colony.

Ninety-eight French ſhips, carrying 40,130 tons, imported 29,506 negroes; which ſold for 8,000,000 dollars.

The negroes in the French diviſion of this iſland have, for ſeveral years paſt, been in a ſtate of inſurrection. In the progreſs of theſe diſturbances, which have not yet ſubſided, the planters and others have ſuſtained immenſe loſſes. As this unhappy affair has engaged much of the attention of the public, we are happy in being able to give a ſummary ſtatement of the cauſes of this inſurrection.*

"The ſituation of the French colonies early attracted the attention of the Conſtituent Aſſembly. At this time all was as tranquil as ſuch a ſtate of oppreſſion would permit. Political health can only be attributed to a country with a free conſtitution. The ſituation of the iſlands is that of a paralytic: one part is torpid, whilſt the other is affected with the frantic motions of St. Vitus's Dance.

"The firſt interference of the National Aſſembly in the affairs of the colonies, was by a decree of the 8th of March, 1790, which declared, "That all free perſons, who were proprietors and reſidents of two years ſtanding, and who contributed to the exigencies of the State, ſhould exerciſe the rights of voting, which conſtitute the quality of French citizens."

This decree, though in fact it gave no new rights to the people of colour, was regarded with a jealous eye by the white planters, who evidently ſaw that the generality of the qualification included all deſcriptions of proprietors; they affected, however, to impoſe a different conſtruction upon it. The people of colour appealed to common juſtice and common ſenſe; it was to no purpoſe; the whites repelled them from their aſſemblies: ſome commotions enſued, in which they mutually ſell a ſacrifice to their pride and reſentment.

* From a pamphlet publiſhed in 1792, intitled, "An Inquiry into the Cauſes of the Inſurrection of the Negroes in the Iſland of St. Domingo."

Theſe diſturbances again excited the vigilance of the National Aſſembly: a decree was paſſed on the 12th day of October, 1790, by which the Aſſembly declared, as a conſtitutional article, "That they would eſtabliſh no regulations reſpecting the internal government of the colonies, without the preciſe and formal requeſt of the Colonial Aſſemblies."

Peace, however, was not the conſequence of this decree. The proprietors, it is true, had obtained a legal right of tyrannizing; but the unfortunate queſtion ſtill recurred, Who ſhould be permitted to exerciſe that right? On this head the decree was ſilent. New diſſenſions aroſe; each of the parties covered, under a factious patriotiſm, the moſt atrocious deſigns. Aſſaſſination and revolt became frequent. Mauduit, a French officer of rank, loſt his life by the hands of his own countrymen. The unfortunate Oge, a planter of colour, who had exerted himſelf in France in the cauſe of his brethren, reſolved to ſupport by force their juſt pretenſions. He landed in the Spaniſh territory of St. Domingo, where he aſſembled about 600 mulattoes. Before he proceeded to hoſtilities, he wrote to the French general, that his deſire was for peace, provided the laws were enforced. His letter was abſurdly conſidered as a declaration of war. Being attacked and vanquiſhed, he took refuge amongſt the Spaniards, who delivered him up to his adverſaries. The horrors of his death were the harbingers of future crimes. Theſe diſturbances ſtill increaſing, the National Aſſembly found it neceſſary, at length, to decide between the contending parties.

On the 15th of May, 1791, a decree was made, conſiſting of two articles, by the firſt of which the Aſſembly confirmed that of the 12th of October, ſo far as reſpected the ſlaves in their iſlands. It is true, that the word ſlave was cautiouſly omitted in this document, and they are only characterized by the negative deſcription of "men not free," as if right and wrong depended on a play of words, or a mode of expreſſion.

This part of the decree met with but little oppoſition, though it paſſed not without ſevere reprehenſion from a few enlightened members. The ſecond article, reſpecting the people of colour, was ſtrongly conteſted: thoſe who were before known by the appellation of patriots divided upon it. It was, however, determined in the reſult, that the people of colour, born of free parents, ſhould be conſidered as active citizens, and be eligible to the offices of government in the iſlands.

This ſecond article, which decided upon a right that the people of colour had been entitled to for upwards of a century, inſtead of reſtoring peace, may be conſidered as the cauſe, or rather the pretext, of all the ſubſequent evils that the colony of St. Domingo has ſuſtained. They aroſe not indeed from its execution, but from its counteraction by the white coloniſts. Had they, after the awful warnings they had already experienced, obeyed the ordinances of an Aſſembly they pretended to revere; had they imbibed one drop of the true ſpirit of that conſtitution to which they had vowed an inviolable attachment; had they even ſuppreſſed the dictates of pride in the ſuggeſtions of prudence; the ſtorm that threatened them had been averted, and in their obedience to the parent State they had diſplayed an act of patriotiſm, and preſerved themſelves from all poſſibility of danger.

But the equalization of the people of colour ſtung the irritable nerves of the white coloniſts. The deſcendants of ſlaves might have loſt the reſentments of their fathers; but the hatred of a deſpot is hereditary. The European maxim allows, "That they never pardon who have done the wrong;" but in the colonies this perverſity attains a more monſtrous growth, and the averſion to African blood deſcends from generation to generation. No ſooner had the decree paſſed, than deputies from the iſlands to the National Aſſembly withdrew their attendance: the colonial committee, always under

the influence of the planters, ſuſpended their labours. Its arrival in the iſland ſtruck the whites with conſternation: they vowed to ſacrifice their lives rather than ſuffer the execution of the decree. Their rage bordered upon phrenzy: they propoſed to impriſon the French merchants then in the iſland, to tear down the National flag, and hoiſt the Britiſh ſtandard in its place. Whilſt the joy of the mulattoes was mingled with apprehenſions and with fears, St. Domingo re-echoed with the cries of the whites, with their menaces, with their blaſphemies againſt the conſtitution. A motion was made in the ſtreets to fire upon the people of colour, who fled from the city, and took refuge in the plantations of their friends and in the woods: they were at length recalled by a proclamation; but it was only to ſwear ſubordination to the whites, and to be witneſſes of freſh enormities. Amidſt theſe agitations the ſlaves had remained in their accuſtomed ſubordination. Nor was it till the month of Auguſt, 1791, that the ſymptoms of the inſurrection appeared amongſt them.

A conſiderable number, both of whites and people of colour, had loſt their lives in theſe commotions before the ſlaves had given indications of diſaffection; they were not, however, inſenſible of the opportunities of revolt afforded by the diſſenſions of their maſters: they had learnt that no alleviation of their miſeries was ever to be expected from Europe; that in the ſtruggle for colonial dominion, their humble intereſts had been equally ſacrificed or forgotten by all parties. They felt their curb relaxed by the diſarming and diſperſion of their mulatto maſters, who had been accuſtomed to keep them under rigorous diſcipline. Hopeleſs of relief from any quarter, they roſe in different parts, and ſpread deſolation over the iſland. If the cold cruelties of deſpotiſm have no bounds, what ſhall be expected from the paroxiſms of deſpair?

On the 11th of September, 1791, a convention took place, which produced the agreement called the Concordat, by which the white planters ſtipulated, that they would no longer oppoſe the law of the 15th of May, which gave political rights to the people of colour. The Colonial Aſſembly even promiſed to meliorate the ſituation of the people of colour, born of parents not free, and to whom the decree of the 15th of May did not extend. An union was formed between the planters, which, if it had ſooner taken place, had prevented the inſurrection. The inſurgents were every where diſpirited, repulſed, and diſperſed; and the colony itſelf preſerved from total deſtruction.

By a decree of the National Aſſembly, the 24th of September, the people of colour were virtually excluded from all right of colonial legiſlation, and expreſsly placed in the power of the white coloniſts.

If the decree of the 15th of May could inſtigate the white coloniſts to the frantic acts of violence before deſcribed, what ſhall we ſuppoſe were the feelings of the people of colour on that of the 24th of September, which again blaſted thoſe hopes they had juſtly founded on the conſtitutional law of the parent ſtate, and the ſolemn ratification of the white coloniſts? No ſooner was it known in the iſlands, than thoſe diſſenſions which the revolt of the negroes had for a while appeaſed, broke out with freſh violence. The apprehenſions entertained from the ſlaves had been allayed by the effects of the Concordat; but the whites no ſooner found themſelves relieved from the terrors of immediate deſtruction, than they availed themſelves of the decree of the 24th of September; they formally revoked the Concordat, and treacherouſly refuſed to comply with an engagement to which they owed their very exiſtence. The people of colour were in arms; they attacked the whites in the ſouthern provinces; they poſſeſſed themſelves of Fort St. Louis, and defeated their opponents in ſeveral engagements. A powerful body ſurrounded Port au Prince, the capital of the iſland, and claimed the execution of the Concor-

Concordat. At three different times did the whites aſſent to the requiſition, and as often broke their engagement. Gratified with the predilection for ariſtocracy, which the Conſtituent Aſſembly had in its dotage avowed, they affected the appellation of patriots, and had the addreſs to transfer the popular odium to the people of colour, who were contending for their indiſputable rights, and to the few white coloniſts who had virtue enough to eſpouſe their cauſe. Under this pretext, the municipality of Port au Prince required M. Grimoard, the captain of the Boreas, a French line of battle ſhip, to bring his guns to bear upon, and to cannonade the people of colour aſſembled near the town: he at firſt refuſed, but the crew, deluded by the cry of patriotiſm, enforced his compliance. No ſooner was this meaſure adopted, than the people of colour gave a looſe to their indignation; they ſpread over the country, and ſet fire indiſcriminately to all the plantations; the greateſt part of the town of Port au Prince ſoon after ſhared the ſame fate. Nothing ſeemed to remain for the white inhabitants but to ſeek their ſafety in quitting the colony.

In the northern parts the people of colour adopted a more magnanimous and perhaps a more prudent conduct. "They begun," ſays Mr. Verniaud, "by offering their blood to the whites. We ſhall wait," ſaid they, "till we have ſaved you, before we aſſert our own claims." They accordingly oppoſed themſelves to the revolted negroes with unexampled courage: they endeavoured to ſoothe them by attending to their reaſonable requiſitions; and if the colony of St. Domingo be preſerved to the French nation, it will be by the exertions of the people of colour.

After this recital of authentic and indiſputable facts, it is not difficult to trace the cauſes of the inſurrection. The effects of this dreadful inſurrection we leave to be deſcribed by the profeſſed hiſtorian.

PORTO RICO.

Situated between 64 and 67 degrees W. long. and in 18 degrees N. lat. lying between Hiſpaniola and St. Chriſtopher's, is 100 miles long, and 40 broad. The ſoil is beautifully diverſified with woods, vallies, and plains; and is very fertile, producing the ſame fruits as the other iſlands: it is well watered with ſprings and rivers; but the iſland is unhealthy in the rainy ſeaſons. It was on account of the gold that the Spaniards ſettled here; but there is no longer any conſiderable quantity of this metal found in it.

Porto Rico, the capital town, ſtands in a little iſland on the north ſide, forming a capacious harbour, defended by forts and batteries, which render the town almoſt inacceſſible. It was, however, taken by Sir Francis Drake, and afterwards by the Earl of Cumberland. It is better inhabited than moſt of the Spaniſh towns, becauſe it is the center of the contraband trade carried on by the Engliſh and French with the King of Spain's ſubjects.

Virgin Islands, ſituated at the eaſt end of Porto Rico, are extremely ſmall.

TRINIDAD.

Situated between 59 and 62 degrees W. long. and in 10 degrees N. lat. lies between the iſland Tobago and the Spaniſh Main, from which it is ſeparated by the ſtraits of Paria: it is about 90 miles long, and 60 broad, and is an unhealthful but fruitful ſpot, producing ſugar, fine tobacco, indigo, ginger, a variety of fruit, and ſome cotton trees, and

and Indian corn. It was taken by Sir Walter Raleigh in 1595, and by the French in 1676, who plundered the iſland, and extorted money from the inhabitants.

MARGARETTA.

Situated in 64 degrees W. long. and 11—30 N. lat. ſeparated from the northern coaſt of New Andaluſia, in Terra Firma, by a ſtrait of 24 miles, and is about 40 miles in length, and 24 in breadth; and being always verdant, affords a moſt agreeable proſpect. The iſland abounds in paſture, maize, and fruit; but there is a ſcarcity of wood and water. There was once a pearl fiſhery on its coaſt.

There are many other ſmall iſlands in theſe ſeas, to which the Spaniards have paid no attention. We ſhall therefore proceed round Cape Horn into the South Seas, where the firſt Spaniſh iſland of any importance is CHILOE, on the coaſt of Chili, which has a governor, and ſome harbours well fortified.

JUAN FERNANDES.

Lying in 83 degrees W. long. and 33 S. lat. 300 miles weſt of Chili. This iſland is uninhabited; but having ſome good harbours, it is found extremely convenient for the Engliſh cruiſers to touch at and water. This iſland is famous for having given riſe to the celebrated romance of Robinſon Cruſoe. It ſeems one Alexander Selkirk, a Scotchman, was left aſhore in this ſolitary place by his captain, where he lived for ſome years, until he was diſcovered by Captain Woodes Rogers, in 1709; when taken up, he had almoſt forgotten his native language: he was dreſſed in goat's ſkins, and would drink nothing but water. During his abode in this iſland, he had killed 500 goats, which he caught by running them down; and he marked as many more on the ear, which he let go. Some of theſe were caught thirty years after by Lord Anſon's people; their venerable aſpect and majeſtic beards diſcovered ſtrong ſymptoms of antiquity.

Selkirk, upon his return to England, was adviſed to publiſh an account of his life and adventures in his little kingdom. He is ſaid to have put his papers into the hands of Daniel Defoe, to prepare them for publication; but that writer, by the help of thoſe papers, and a lively fancy, transformed Alexander Selkirk into Robinſon Cruſoe, and returned Selkirk his papers again; ſo that the latter derived no advantage from them. They were probably too indigeſted for publication, and Defoe might derive little from them but thoſe hints which might give riſe to his own celebrated performance.*

FRENCH WEST INDIES.

THE French were among the laſt nations who made ſettlements in the Weſt Indies; but they made ample amends by the vigour with which they purſued them, and by that chain of judicious and admirable meaſures which they uſed in drawing from

* A ſplendid Edition of Robinſon Cruſoe, with ſeventeen Copper Plates, and a very intereſting account of the Life of Daniel Defoe; by George Chalmers, Eſq. is publiſhed by Mr. Stockdale, in 2 vols. 8vo.

them

them every advantage that the nature of the climate would yield; and in the contending againſt the difficulties which it threw in their way.

We have already mentioned the French colony upon the Spaniſh iſland of Hiſpaniola, or St. Domingo, as the moſt important of all their foreign ſettlements. We ſhall next proceed to the iſlands of which the French have the ſole poſſeſſion, beginning with the large and important one of

MARTINICO,

Which is ſituated between 14 and 15 degrees of N. lat. and in 61 degrees W. long. lying about 40 degrees N. W. of Barbadoes, is about 60 miles in length and 30 in breadth. The inland part of it is hilly, from which are poured out upon every ſide, a number of agreeable and uſeful rivers, which adorn and enrich this iſland in a high degree. The produce of the ſoil is ſugar, cotton, indigo, ginger, and ſuch fruits as are found in the neighbouring iſlands: but ſugar is here, as in all the Weſt India iſlands, the principal commodity of which they export a conſiderable quantity annually. Martinico is the reſidence of the govenor of the French iſlands in theſe ſeas. Its bays and harbours are numerous, ſafe, and commodious, and well fortified. In the year 1756 this iſland was added to the Britiſh empire, but it was given back at the treaty of peace.

GUADALOUPE,

So called by Columbus, from the reſemblance of its mountains to thoſe of that name in Spain, is ſituated in 16 degrees N. lat. and in 62 degrees W. long. about 30 leagues north of Martinico, and almoſt as many ſouth of Antigua; being 45 miles long, and 38 broad. It is divided into two parts by a ſmall arm of the ſea, or rather a narrow channel, through which no ſhips can venture; but the inhabitants paſs it in a ferry boat: its ſoil is equally fertile, and in the ſame productions with that of Martinico. This iſland is in a flouriſhing condition, and its exports of ſugar almoſt incredible.

ST. LUCIA,

Situated in 14 degrees N. lat. and in 61 degrees W. long. 80 miles north-weſt of Barbadoes, is 23 miles in length, and 12 in breadth. It received its name from being diſcovered on the day dedicated to the virgin martyr St. Lucia. The Engliſh firſt ſettled on this iſland in 1637. From this time they met with various misfortunes from the natives and French; and at length it was agreed on between the latter and the Engliſh, that this iſland, together with Dominica and St. Vincent, ſhould remain neutral. But the French, before the war of 1756 broke out, began to ſettle theſe iſlands; which, by the treaty of peace were yielded up to Great Britain, and this iſland to France. The ſoil of St. Lucia, in the vallies, is extremely rich: it produces excellent timber, and abounds with pleaſant rivers and well ſituated harbours; and is now declared a free port under certain reſtrictions. The Engliſh made themſelves maſters of it in 1778; but it was reſtored again to the French in 1783.

TOBAGO.

This iſland is ſituated 11 degrees odd minutes, N. lat. 120 miles ſouth of Barbadoes, and about the ſame diſtance from the Spaniſh Main. It is about 32 miles in length, and

and nine in breadth. The climate here is not ſo hot as might be expected ſo near the equator; and it is ſaid that it lies out of the courſe of thoſe hurricanes that have ſometimes proved ſo fatal to the other Weſt India iſlands. It has a fruitful ſoil, capable of producing ſugar, and indeed every thing elſe that is raiſed in the Weſt Indies, with the addition (if we may believe the Dutch) of the cinnamon, nutmeg, and gum copal. It is well watered with numerous ſprings; and its bays and rivers are ſo diſpoſed, as to be very commodious for all kind of ſhipping. The value and importance of this iſland appears from the expenſive and formidable armaments ſent thither by European powers in ſupport of their different claims. It ſeems to have been chiefly poſſeſſed by the Dutch, who defended their pretenſions againſt both England and France with the moſt obſtinate perſeverance. By the treaty of Aix la Chapelle, in 1748, it was declared neutral; though, by the treaty of peace in 1763, it was yielded up to Great Britain; but in June, 1781, it was taken by the French, and ceded to them by the treaty of 1783.

ST. BARTHOLOMEW, DESEADA, AND MARIGALANTE,

Are three ſmall iſlands lying in the neighbourhood of Antigua and St. Chriſtopher's, and are of no great conſequence to the French, except in time of war, when they give ſhelter to an incredible number of privateers, which greatly annoy the Britiſh Weſt India trade. St. Bartholomew is now to be conſidered as belonging to the crown of Sweden, being ceded to it by France, 1785.

DUTCH WEST INDIES.

ST. EUSTATIUS, OR EUSTATIA,

SITUATED in 17° 29′ N. lat. and 63° 10′ W. long. and three leagues north-weſt of St. Chriſtopher's, is only a mountain, about 29 miles in compaſs, riſing out of the ſea, like a pyramid, and almoſt round. But, though ſo ſmall and inconveniently laid out by nature, the induſtry of the Dutch have made it to turn to very good account; and it is ſaid to contain 5000 whites, and 15,000 negroes. The ſides of the mountains are laid out in very pretty ſettlements; but they have neither ſprings nor rivers. They raiſe here ſugar and tobacco; and this iſland, as well as Curaſſou, is engaged in the Spaniſh contraband trade, for which, however, it is not ſo well ſituated; and it has drawn the ſame advantage from its conſtant neutrality. But when hoſtilities were commenced by Great Britain againſt Holland, Admiral Rodney was ſent with a conſiderable land and ſea force againſt St. Euſtatius, which, being incapable of any defence, ſurrendered at diſcretion, on the 3d of February, 1781. The private property of the inhabitants was confiſcated, with a degree of rigour very uncommon among civilized nations, and very inconſiſtent with the humanity and generoſity by which the Engliſh nation uſed to be characteriſed. The reaſon aſſigned was, that the inhabitants of St. Euſtatius had aſſiſted the United States with naval and other

ſtores. But on the 27th of November, the ſame year, St. Euſtatius was retaken by the French, under the command of the Marquis de Bouille, though their force conſiſted of only three frigates and ſome ſmall craft, and about 300 men.

CURASSOU,

Situated in twelve degrees north latitude, nine or ten leagues from the continent of Terra Firma, is thirty miles long, and ten broad. It ſeems as if it were fated, that the ingenuity and patience of the Hollanders ſhould every where, both in Europe and America, be employed in fighting againſt an unfriendly nature; for the iſland is not only barren, and dependent on the rains for its water, but the harbour is naturally one of the worſt in America; yet the Dutch have entirely remedied that defect; they have upon this harbour one of the largeſt and by far the moſt elegant and cleanly towns in the Weſt Indies. The public buildings are numerous and handſome; the private houſes commodious; and the magazines large, convenient, and well filled. All kind of labour is here performed by engines; ſome of them ſo well contrived, that ſhips are at once lifted into the dock.

Though this iſland is naturally barren, the induſtry of the Dutch has brought it to produce a conſiderable quantity both of tobacco and ſugar; it has, beſides, good ſalt works, for the produce of which there is a briſk demand from the Engliſh iſlands, and the colonies on the continent. But what renders this iſland of moſt advantage to the Dutch, is the contraband trade which is carried on between the inhabitants and the Spaniards, and their harbour being the rendezvous to all nations in time of war.

The Dutch ſhips from Europe touch at this iſland for intelligence, or pilots, and then proceed to the Spaniſh coaſts for trade, which they force with a ſtrong hand, it being very difficult for the Spaniſh guarda coſtas to take theſe veſſels; for they are not only ſtout ſhips, with a number of guns, but are manned with large crews of choſen ſeamen, deeply intereſted in the ſafety of the veſſel and the ſucceſs of the voyage. They have each a ſhare in the cargo, of a value proportioned to the ſtation of the owner, ſupplied by the merchants upon credit, and at prime coſt. This animates them with an uncommon courage, and they fight bravely, becauſe every man fights in defence of his own property. Beſides this, there is a conſtant intercourſe between this iſland and the Spaniſh continent.

Curaſſou has numerous warehouſes, always full of the commodities of Europe and the Eaſt Indies. Here are all ſorts of woollen and linen cloth, laces, ſilks, ribands, iron utenſils, naval and military ſtores, brandy, the ſpices of the Moluccas, and the calicoes of India, white and painted. Hither the Dutch Weſt India, which is alſo their African Company, annually bring three or four cargoes of ſlaves; and to this mart the Spaniards themſelves come in ſmall veſſels, and carry off not only the beſt of the negroes, at a very high price, but great quantities of all the above ſorts of goods; and the ſeller has this advantage, that the refuſe of warehouſes and mercers' ſhops, and every thing that is grown unfaſhionable and unſaleable in Europe, go off here extremely well; every thing being ſufficiently recommended by its being European. The Spaniards pay in gold and ſilver, coined or in bars, cocoa, vanilla, jeſuits bark, cochineal, and other valuable commodities.

The trade of Curaſſou, even in times of peace, is ſaid to be annually worth to the Dutch no leſs than 500,000l. but in time of war the profit is ſtill greater, for then it becomes the common emporium of the Weſt Indies; it affords a retreat to ſhips of all nations, and at the ſame time refuſes none of them arms and ammunition to deſtroy

one

one another. The intercourſe with Spain being then interrupted, the Spaniſh colonies have ſcarcely any other market from whence they can be well ſupplied either with ſlaves or goods. The French come hither to buy the beef, pork, corn, flour, and lumber, which are brought from the continent of North America, or exported from Ireland; ſo that, whether in peace or in war, the trade of this iſland flouriſhes extremely.

The trade of all the Dutch American ſettlements was originally carried on by the Weſt India Company alone; at preſent, ſuch ſhips as go upon that trade, pay two and a half per cent. for their licenſes; the company, however, reſerve to themſelves the whole of what is carried on between Africa and the American iſlands.

The other iſlands, BONAIRE and ARUBA, are inconſiderable in themſelves, and ſhould be regarded as appendages to Curaſſou, for which they are chiefly employed in raiſing cattle and other proviſions.

The iſland of SABA, ſituated at no great diſtance from St. Euſtatius, is ſmall and hardly deſerves to be mentioned.

DANISH WEST INDIES.

ST. THOMAS.

AN inconſiderable member of the Caribbees, ſituated in 64 degrees Weſt longitude, and 18 degrees North latitude, about 15 miles in circumference, and has a ſafe and commodious harbour.

ST. CROIX, OR SANTA CRUZ,

Another ſmall and unhealthy iſland, lying about five leagues eaſt of St. Thomas, ten or twelve leagues in length, and three or four where it is broadeſt. Theſe iſlands, ſo long as they remained in the hands of the Daniſh Weſt India Company, were ill-managed, and of little conſequence to the Danes; but that wiſe and benevolent prince, the late king of Denmark, bought up the company's ſtock, and laid the trade open; and ſince that time the iſland of St. Thomas, as well as this, has been ſo greatly improved, that it is ſaid to produce upwards of 3000 hogſheads of ſugar, of 1000 weight each, and other of the Weſt India commodities in tolerable plenty. In time of war, privateers bring in their prizes here for ſale; and a great many veſſels trade from hence along the Spaniſh main, and return with money in ſpecie or bars, and valuable merchandiſe. As for Santa Cruz, from a perfect deſert a few years ſince, it is beginning to ſettle faſt; ſeveral perſons from the Engliſh iſlands, ſome of them of great wealth, have gone to ſettle there, and have received very great encouragement to do ſo.

Theſe two nations, the Dutch and the Danes, hardly deſerve to be mentioned among the proprietors of America; their poſſeſſions there are comparatively nothing. But,

notwithſtanding they appear extremely worthy of the attention of theſe powers, as the ſhare of the Dutch only is worth to them at leaſt 600,000l. a year.

"There ſeems to be a remarkable providence," ſays an ingenious and political writer, "in caſting the parts, if I may uſe that expreſſion, of the ſeveral European nations who act upon the ſtage of America. The Spaniard, proud, lazy, and magnificent, has an ample walk in which to expatiate, a ſoft climate to indulge his love of eaſe, and a profuſion of gold and ſilver to procure him all thoſe luxuries his pride demands, but which his lazineſs would refuſe him.

"The Portugueſe, naturally indigent at home, and enterpriſing rather than induſtrious abroad, has gold and diamonds as the Spaniard has, wants them as he does, but poſſeſſes them in a more uſeful though a leſs oſtentatious manner.

"The Engliſh, of a reaſoning diſpoſition, thoughtful and cool, and men of buſineſs rather than of great induſtry, impatient of much fruitleſs labour, abhorrent of conſtraint, and lovers of a country life, have a lot which indeed produces neither gold nor ſilver; but they have a large tract of a fine continent;* a noble field for the exerciſe of agriculture, and ſufficient to furniſh their trade without laying them under any great difficulties. Intolerant as they are of the moſt uſeful reſtraints, their commerce flouriſhes from the freedom every man has of purſuing it according to his own ideas, and directing his life after his own faſhion.

"The French, active, lively, enterpriſing, pliable, and politic; and though changing their purſuits, always purſuing the preſent object with eagerneſs, are, notwithſtanding, tractable, and obedient to rules and laws, which bridle their diſpoſitions, and wind and turn them to proper courſes—Theſe people have a country (when Canada was in their poſſeſſion) where more is to be effected by managing the people than by cultivating the ground; where a peddling commerce, that requires conſtant motion, flouriſhes more than agriculture, or a regular traffic; where they have difficulties which keep them alert by ſtruggling with them, and where their obedience to a wiſe government (meaning the excellent regulations reſpecting the French colonies in America) ſerves them for perſonal wiſdom. In the iſlands, the whole is the work of their policy, and a right turn their government has taken.

"The Dutch have a rock or two, on which to diſplay the miracles of frugality and diligence (which are their virtues) and on which they have exerted theſe virtues, and ſhewn thoſe miracles."

NEW DISCOVERIES.

OUR knowledge of the globe has been conſiderably augmented by the late diſcoveries of Ruſſia, Britiſh, and American navigators, which have been numerous and important. Of theſe diſcoveries we have already given ſome account, page 98. To the account we have given, we add the following.

* Theſe obſervations were made before the United States were ſeparated from Great Britain, and by an *Engliſhman*.

NORTHERN ARCHIPELAGO.

This conſiſts of ſeveral groups of iſlands, which are ſituated between the eaſtern coaſt of Kamtſchatka, and the weſtern coaſt of the continent of America.*

Some of theſe iſlands are only inhabited occaſionally, and for ſome months in the year, and others are very thinly peopled; but others have a great number of inhabitants, who conſtantly reſide in them. The inhabitants of theſe iſlands are, in general, of a ſhort ſtature, with ſtrong and robuſt limbs, but free and ſupple. They have lank black hair, and little beard, flattiſh faces, and fair ſkins. They are for the moſt part well made, and of ſtrong conſtitutions, ſuitable to the boiſterous climate of their iſles.

The Fox Iſlands, one of the groups, are ſo called from the great number of black, grey, and red foxes, with which they abound. The dreſs of the inhabitants conſiſts of a cap and a fur coat, which reaches down to the knee. Some of them wear common caps of a party-coloured bird ſkin, upon which they leave part of the wings and tail. On the fore part of their hunting and fiſhing caps, they place a ſmall board like a ſkreen, adorned with the jaw bones of ſea bears, and ornamented with glaſs beads, which they receive in barter from the Ruſſians. At their feſtivals and dancing parties they uſe a much more ſhewy ſort of caps. They feed upon the fleſh of all ſorts of ſea animals, and generally eat it raw; but if at any time they chooſe to dreſs their victuals, they make uſe of a hollow ſtone; having placed the fiſh or fleſh therein, they cover it with another, and cloſe the interſtices with lime or clay; they then lay it horizontally upon two ſtones, and light a fire under it. The proviſion intended for keeping is dried without ſalt in the open air. Their weapons conſiſt of bows, arrows, and darts, and for defence they uſe wooden ſhields.

The moſt perfect equality reigns among theſe iſlanders. They have neither chiefs nor ſuperiors, neither laws nor puniſhments. They live together in families, and ſocieties of ſeveral families united, which form what they call a race, who, in caſe of an attack, or defence, mutually help and ſupport each other. The inhabitants of the ſame iſland always pretend to be of the ſame race; and every perſon looks upon his iſland as a poſſeſſion, the property of which is common to all the individuals of the ſame ſociety. Feaſts are very common among them, and more particularly when the inhabitants of one iſland are viſited by thoſe of the others. The men of the village meet their gueſts beating drums, and preceded by the women, who dance. At the concluſion of the dance, the hoſts ſerve up their beſt proviſions, and invite their gueſts to partake of the feaſt. They feed their children when very young with the coarſeſt fleſh, and for the moſt part raw. If an infant cries, the mother immediately carries it to the ſea-ſide, and, whether it be ſummer or winter, holds it naked in the water until it is quiet. This cuſtom is ſo far from doing the children any harm, that it hardens them againſt the cold, and they accordingly go barefooted through the winter without the leaſt inconvenience. They ſeldom heat their dwellings; but, when

* Mr. Coxe obſerves, that, "the firſt project for making diſcoveries in that tempeſtuous ſea, which lies between Kamtſchatka and America, was conceived and planned by Peter I." Voyages with that view were accordingly undertaken at the expenſe of the crown; but when it was diſcovered that the iſlands in that ſea abounded with valuable furs, private merchants immediately engaged with ardour in ſimilar expeditions; and within a period of ten years, more important diſcoveries were made by theſe individuals, at their own private coſt, than had hitherto been effected by all the efforts of the crown. The inveſtigation of uſeful knowledge has alſo been greatly encouraged by the preſent empreſs of Ruſſia; and the moſt diſtant parts of her vaſt dominions, and other countries and iſlands, have been explored, at her expenſe, by perſons of abilities and learning, in conſequence of which ſeveral diſcoveries have been made.

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they are desirous of warming themselves, they light a bundle of hay, and stand over it; or else they set fire to train oil, which they pour into a hollow stone. They have a good share of plain natural sense, but are rather slow of understanding. They seem cold and indifferent in most of their actions; but let an injury or even suspicion only rouse them from this phlegmatic state, and they become inflexible and furious, taking the most violent revenge, without any regard to the consequences. The least affliction prompts them to suicide; the apprehension of even an uncertain evil often leads them to despair; and they put an end to their days with great apparent insensibility.

The PELEW ISLANDS.

The existence and situation of these islands were probably known to the Spaniards at a distant period; but from a report among the neighbouring islands, of their being inhabited by a savage race of cannibals, it appears that there had never been the least communication between them and any of the Europeans, till the Antelope Packet, (belonging to the East India Company) was wrecked on one of them, in August 1783. From the accounts given of these islands, by Captain Wilson, who commanded the packet, it appears that they are situated between the 5th and 9th degrees north latitude, and between 130 and 136 degrees of east longitude from Greenwich, and lie in a N. E. and S. W. direction; they are long but narrow, of a moderate height, and well covered with wood; the climate temperate and agreeable; the lands produce sugar cane, yams, cocoa nuts, plantains, bananas, oranges, and lemons; and the surrounding seas abound with the finest and greatest variety of fish.

The natives of these islands are a stout, well-made people, above the middle stature; their complexions are of a far deeper colour than what is understood by the Indian copper, but not black. The men go entirely naked, and the women wear only two small aprons, one behind and one before, made of the husks of the cocoa nut, dyed with different shades of yellow.

The government is monarchical, and the king is absolute, but his power is exercised more with the mildness of a father than a sovereign. In the language of Europeans, he is the fountain of honour. He occasionally creates his nobles, called Rupacks or Chiefs, and confers a single honour of knighthood, called the *Order of the Bone*, the members of which are distinguished by wearing a bone on their arm.

The idea of these islanders, as communicated in the published account of Captain Wilson, is that of a people who, though totally ignorant of the arts and sciences, and living in the simplest state of nature, yet possess all that genuine politeness, that delicacy and chastity of intercourse between the sexes, that respect for personal property, that subordination to government, and those habits of industry, which are so rarely united in the more civilized societies of modern times.

It appears that when the English were thrown on one of these islands, they were received by the natives with the greatest humanity and hospitality; and till their departure, experienced the utmost courtesy and attention. "They felt our people were distressed, and in consequence wished they should share whatever they had to give. It was not that worldly munificence, that bestows and spreads its favours with a distant eye to retribution; it was the pure emotion of native benevolence; it was the love of man to man; it was a scene that pictures human nature in triumphant colouring, and whilst their liberality gratified the sense, their virtue struck the heart!"

THE MARQUESAS ISLANDS.

Are five in number, firſt diſcovered by Quiros, in 1595, and their ſituation better aſcertained by Captain Cook, in 1774. St. Dominica is the largeſt, about 16 leagues in circuit. The inhabitants, their language, manners, and clothing, with the vegetable productions, are nearly the ſame as the Society Iſles.

INGRAHAM's ISLANDS.

Theſe iſlands were diſcovered by Captain Joſeph Ingraham, of Boſton, commander of the Brigantine Hope, on the 19th of April, 1791. They lie N. N. W. from the Marqueſas iſlands, from 35 to 50 leagues diſtant, and are *ſeven* in number, which Captain Ingraham named as follows, viz.

Names.	Lat. S.	Long. from Lon.	Circuit.
Waſhington,	8° 52′	140° 19′	Theſe 5, except
Adams, -	9° 20′	140° 54′	Federal Iſl. which
Lincoln, -	9° 24′	140° 54′	is ſmaller, are about
Federal, -	8° 55′	140° 50′	10 leagues in cir-
Franklin, -	8° 45′	140° 49′	cuit.
Hancock, -	8° 3′	141° 14′	6 or 7 leagues,
Knox, -	8° 5	141° 18	5 ditto.

Moſt, if not all theſe iſlands are inhabited, and appear generally to be diverſified with hills and vallies, and to be well wooded, and very pleaſant. The people reſemble thoſe of the Marqueſas iſlands, as do their canoes, which are carved at each end. They appeared friendly.

OTAHEITE, OR KING GEORGE's ISLAND.

This iſland was diſcovered by Captain Wallis, in the Dolphin, on the 19th of June, 1767. It is ſituated between the 17th degree 28 minutes, and the 17th degree 53 minutes ſouth latitude, and between the 149th degree 11 minutes, and the 149th degree 39 minutes, weſt longitude. It conſiſts of two peninſulas, of a ſomewhat circular form, joined by an iſthumus, and is ſurrounded by a reef of coral rocks, which form ſeveral excellent bays and harbours, where there is room and depth of water for almoſt any number of the largeſt ſhips. The face of the country is very extraordinary, for a border of low land almoſt entirely ſurrounds each peninſula, and behind this border the land riſes in ridges that run up into the middle of theſe diviſions, and theſe form mountains that may be ſeen at ſixty leagues diſtance. The ſoil, except upon the very tops of the ridges, is remarkably rich and fertile, watered by a great number of rivulets, and covered with fruit trees of various kinds, forming the moſt delightful groves. The border of low lands that lies between the ridges and the ſea, is in very few places more than a mile and a half broad, and this, together with ſome of the vallies, are the only parts that are inhabited.

Some parts of the iſland of Otaheite are very populous; and Capt. Cook was of opinion that the number of inhabitants on the whole iſland amounted to 204,000, including women and children. They are of a clear olive complexion; the men are tall, ſtrong, well limbed, and finely ſhaped; the women are of an inferior ſize, but handſome, and very amorous, and indeed generally ſomewhat licentious. Their cloth-

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ing conſiſts of cloth or matting of different kinds; and the greateſt part of the food eaten here is vegetable, as cocoa nuts, bananas, bread fruit, plantains, and a great variety of other fruit.

They have no tools among them made of metal; and thoſe they uſe are made of ſtone, or ſome kind of bones. The inhabitants of Otatheite are remarkable for their cleanlineſs; for both men and women conſtantly waſh their whole bodies in running water three times every day. Their language is ſoft and melodious, and abounds with vowels.

There were no tame animals on this iſland but hogs, dogs, and poultry; and the only wild animals are tropical birds, paroquets, pigeons, ducks, a few other birds, rats, and a very few ſerpents. The ſea, however, ſupplies the inhabitants with a great variety of the moſt excellent fiſh, and by the kindneſs of the Engliſh and the Spaniards, they have now bulls and cows, ſheep, goats, a horſe and mare, geeſe, ducks, peacocks, and turkeys, and alſo cats.

The inhabitants of Otaheite believe in one Supreme Deity, but at the ſame time acknowledge a variety of ſubordinate deities: they offer up their prayers without the uſe of idols, and believe the exiſtence of the ſoul in a ſeparate ſtate, where there are two ſituations, of different degrees of happineſs. Among theſe people a ſubordination is eſtabliſhed, which ſomewhat reſembles the early ſtate of the European nations, under the feudal ſyſtem. If a general attack happens to be made on the iſland, every diſtrict is obliged to furniſh its proportion of ſoldiers for the common defence. Their weapons are ſlings, which they uſe with great dexterity, and clubs of about ſix or ſeven feet long, and made of a hard heavy wood. They have a great number of boats, many of which are conſtructed for warlike operations. Otaheite is ſaid to be able to ſend out 1720 war canoes, and 68,000 fighting men.

SOCIETY ISLANDS.

Of the ſeveral iſlands ſo called in honour of the Royal Society, which were diſcovered by Captain Cook, in the year 1769, the principal are, HUAHEINE, ULITEA, OTAHA, and BOLABOLA. Huaheine is about 31 leagues to the north-weſt of Otaheite, and its productions are the ſame. The inhabitants ſeem to be larger made and more ſtout than thoſe of Otaheite. Mr. Banks meaſured one of the men, and found him to be ſix feet three inches and a half high; yet they are ſo indolent, that he could not perſuade one of them to go up the hills with him; for they ſaid, if they ſhould attempt it, the fatigue would kill them. Ulitea is about ſeven or eight leagues to the ſouth-weſtward of Huaheine, and is a much larger iſland, but appears neither ſo fertile nor ſo populous. Otaha is divided from Ulitea by a ſtrait, that in the narroweſt part is not above two miles broad. About four leagues to the north-weſt of Otaha lies Bolabola, which is ſurrounded by a reef of rocks, and ſeveral ſmall iſlands, all which are no more than eight leagues in compaſs. To theſe iſlands, and thoſe of Maura, which lie about 14 miles to the weſtward of Bolabola, containing ſix in all, Capt. Cook gave the name of Society Iſlands.

THE FRIENDLY ISLANDS.

Theſe iſlands were ſo named by Capt. Cook, in the year 1773, on account of the friendſhip which appeared to ſubſiſt among the inhabitants, and from their courteous behaviour to ſtrangers.

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The plantations on ſome of theſe iſlands are both more numerous and more extenſive, and encloſed by fences, which running parallel to each other, form fine ſpacious public roads, which would appear beautiful in countries where rural conveniencies have been carried to the greateſt perfection. They are in general highly cultivated, and well ſtocked with the ſeveral roots and fruits which theſe iſlands produce; and Capt. Cook endeavoured to add to their number by planting Indian corn, and the ſeed of melons, pumpkins, and the like.

Eooa, when viewed from the ſhip at anchor, formed one of the moſt beautiful proſpects in nature, and very different from the others of the Friendly Iſles, which being low and perfectly level, exhibit nothing to the eye but the trees which cover them; whereas here, the land riſing gently to a conſiderable height, preſents us with an extenſive proſpect, where groves of trees are only interſperſed at irregular diſtances, in beautiful diſorder, and all the reſt is covered with graſs, except near the ſhores, where it is covered with fruit and other trees, amongſt which are the habitations of the natives.

We are informed that the bulk of the people of theſe iſlands are ſatisfied with one wife, but the chiefs have commonly ſeveral women, though it appeared as if one only was looked on as a miſtreſs of the family. Though female chaſtity was frail enough in ſome, it is highly probable that conjugal fidelity is ſeldom violated, as it does not appear that more than one inſtance of it was known to our voyagers; and in that, the man's life who was the cauſe of it paid the forfeit for his crime. Nor were thoſe of the better ſort who were unmarried more liberal of their favours; thoſe who were being obvious proſtitutes by profeſſion. When they are afflicted by any diſorder which they deem dangerous, they cut off the joint of one of their little fingers, fondly believing that the Deity will accept of that, as a ſort of ſacrifice efficacious enough to procure the recovery of their health. It was ſuppoſed from ſome circumſtances, that though they believe in a future ſtate, they have no notion of future rewards nor puniſhments for the things done here. They believe in a Supreme Being, but they believe alſo in a number of inferior ones: every iſland has its peculiar god, as every European nation has its peculiar ſaint. Capt. Cook thinks he can pronounce that they do not worſhip any thing that is the work of their own hands, or any viſible part of the creation. They make no offering of hogs, dogs, or fruit, to the Otooa, as at Otaheite; but it is abſolutely certain that even this mild, humane, and beneficent people uſe human ſacrifices. The government, as far as could be diſcovered, appears to approach nearly to the feudal ſyſtem, formerly eſtabliſhed all over Europe. When any perſon of conſequence dies, his body is waſhed and decorated by ſome women, who are appointed on the occaſion, and theſe women are not, by their cuſtoms, to touch any food with their hands for many months afterwards; and it is remarkable, that the length of the time they are thus proſcribed is the greater in proportion to the rank of the chief they had waſhed. Their great men are fond of a ſingular piece of luxury, which is to have women ſit beſide them all night, and beat on different parts of their body until they go to ſleep; after which they relax a little of their labour, unleſs they appear likely to awake, in which caſe they redouble their drumming, until they are again faſt aſleep. Theſe are ſome of the moſt remarkable opinions, cuſtoms, laws, and ceremonies obſerved at the Friendly Iſlands, and which we have endeavoured to collect into one point of view for the information of our more inquiſitive readers.

NEW ZEALAND.

This country was firſt diſcovered by Taſman, the Dutch navigator, in the year 1642, who gave it the name of Staten Land, though it has been generally diſtinguiſhed in our maps and charts by the name of New Zealand, and was ſuppoſed to be part of a ſouthern continent; but it is now known, from the late diſcoveries of Capt. Cook, who ſailed round it, to conſiſt of two large iſlands, divided from each other by a ſtrait four or five leagues broad. They are ſituated between the latitudes of 34 and 48 degrees S. and between the longitudes of 166 and 180 degrees E. of Greenwich. One of theſe iſlands is for the moſt part mountainous, rather barren, and but thinly inhabited; but the other is much more fertile, and of a better appearance. In the opinion of Sir Joſeph Banks and Dr. Solander, every kind of European fruits, grain, and plants, would flouriſh here in the utmoſt luxuriance. From the vegetables found here, it is ſuppoſed that the winters are milder than thoſe of England, and the ſummers not hotter, though more equally warm; ſo that it is imagined that if this country were ſettled by people from Europe, they would, with moderate induſtry, be ſoon ſupplied not only with the neceſſaries but the luxuries of life in great abundance. Here are foreſts of vaſt extent, filled with very large timber trees; and near four hundred plants were found here that had not been deſcribed by naturaliſts. The inhabitants of New Zealand are ſtout and robuſt and equal in ſtature to the largeſt Europeans. Their colour in general is brown, but in few deeper than that of a Spaniard who has been expoſed to the ſun, and in many not ſo deep; and both ſexes have good features. Their dreſs is very uncouth, and they mark their bodies in a manner ſimilar to thoſe of Otaheite, which is called tattowing. Their principal weapons are lances, darts, and a kind of battle-axes; and they have generally ſhewn themſelves very hoſtile to the Europeans who have viſited them. As to their religious principles, they believe that the ſouls of ſuch as are killed in battle, and their fleſh afterwards eaten by the enemy, are doomed to perpetual fire; while the ſouls of thoſe who die a natural death, or whoſe bodies are preſerved from ſuch ignominious treatment, aſcend to the habitations of the gods. The common method of diſpoſing of their dead is by interment in the earth; but if they have more of their ſlaughtered enemies than they can eat, they throw them into the ſea. They have no ſuch things as morais, or other places of public worſhip; nor do they ever aſſemble together with this view.

We conclude this article with the following character of Capt. Cook, to perpetuate the memory and ſervices of ſo excellent a navigator and commander:

Perhaps no ſcience ever received greater additions from the labours of a ſingle man, than geography has done from thoſe of Capt. Cook. In his firſt voyage to the South Seas, he diſcovered the Society Iſlands; determined the inſularity of New Zealand; diſcovered the ſtraits which ſeparate the two iſlands, and are called after his name; and made a complete ſurvey of both. He afterwards explored the eaſtern coaſt of New Holland, hitherto unknown; an extent of twenty-ſeven degrees of latitude, or upwards of 2000 miles.

In his ſecond expedition he ſolved the great problem of a ſouthern continent, having traverſed that hemiſphere between the latitude of 40° and 70°, in ſuch a manner as not to leave a poſſibility of its exiſtence, unleſs near the pole, and out of the reach of navigation. During this voyage, he diſcovered New Caledonia, the largeſt iſland in the Southern Pacific, except New Zealand; the iſland of Georgia, and an unknown coaſt, which he named Sandwich Land, the *Thule* of the ſouthern hemiſphere; and

having twice viſited the tropical ſeas, he ſettled the ſituations of the old, and made ſeveral new diſcoveries.

But the laſt voyage is diſtinguiſhed above all the reſt by the extent and importance of its diſcoveries. Beſides ſeveral ſmaller iſlands in the Southern Pacific, he diſcovered, to the north of the equinoctial line, the group called the Sandwich Iſlands, which, from their ſituation and productions, bid fairer for becoming an object of conſequence in the ſyſtem of European navigation, than any other diſcovery in the South Sea. He afterwards explored what had hitherto remained unknown of the weſtern coaſt of America, from the latitude of 43° to 70° north, containing an extent of 3,500 miles; aſcertained the proximity of the two great continents of Aſia and America; paſſed the ſtraits between them, and ſurveyed the coaſt on each ſide to ſuch a height of northern latitude, as to demonſtrate the impracticability of a paſſage, in that hemiſphere, from the Atlantic into the Pacific ocean, either by an eaſtern or a weſtern courſe. In ſhort, if we except the Sea of Amur, and the Japaneſe Archipelago, which ſtill remain imperfectly known to Europeans, he has completed the hydrography of the habitable globe.

As a navigator, his ſervices were not, perhaps, leſs ſplendid; certainly not leſs important and meritorious. The method which he diſcovered, and ſo ſucceſsfully purſued, of preſerving the health of ſeamen, forms a new æra in navigation, and will tranſmit his name to future ages among the friends and benefactors of mankind.

Thoſe who are converſant in naval hiſtory need not be told at how dear a rate the advantages which have been ſought, through the medium of long voyages at ſea, have always been purchaſed. That dreadful diſorder which is peculiar to their ſervice, and whoſe ravages have marked the tracts of diſcoverers with circumſtances almoſt too ſhocking to relate, muſt, without exerciſing an unwarrantable tyranny over the lives of our ſeamen, have proved an inſuperable obſtacle to the proſecution of ſuch enterprizes. It was reſerved for Capt. Cook to ſhew the world, by repeated trials, that voyages might be protracted to the unuſual length of three, or even four years, in unknown regions, and under every change and rigour of the climate, not only without affecting the health, but even without diminiſhing the probability of life, in the ſmalleſt degree.

OF the diſcoveries which have been made in the eaſtern hemiſphere, that merit particular notice, are New Holland, New Guinea, New Britain, and New Ireland. We ſhall alſo here add a more particular account of the Sandwich Iſlands.

CONTINENT OF NEW HOLLAND.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		
Length	2400	between	110° and 153° E. Long.
Breadth	2300		11° and 43° S. Lat.

IT lies S.E. of the iſland of Java, and ſouth of New Guinea, in the Great South Sea. For more than a century after its firſt diſcovery by the Dutch, in 1616, it was thought to be a part of a vaſt ſouthern continent, the exiſtence of which had been a favourite idea with many experienced navigators. The great extent of New Holland gives it an unqueſtionable claim to the name of CONTINENT.

The principal capes are, Cape York and South Cape, which form the extreme N. and S. points of the continent. Between theſe capes, along the eaſtern ſhore, are Cape Flattery, Cape Glouceſter, Cape Townſend, Sandy Cape, Smoakley Cape, and Cape Howe. The moſt noted bays are Botany Bay, on the eaſt ſide of the continent, Bateman Bay, ſouth of it, and Glaſshouſe Bay, Harvey's, Kepple, Halifax, and Trinity Bays, all between Botany Bay and York Cape, on the eaſtern ſhore. Shark Bay lies on the weſt ſide of the continent, about ſouth lat. 25°. The capacious gulf of Carpentaria, diſcovered in 1618, lies on the north; York Cape and Arneim's land make the two points of it.

The whole eaſtern coaſt of this continent, except the very ſouthern point, was diſcovered and explored by Capt. Cook, in 1770, and is called NEW SOUTH WALES. It is claimed by England on the old principle of prior diſcovery.

From want of opportunity to examine, no conſiderable rivers have yet been diſcovered; but from the appearance of the country, it is conjectured that it is well watered. Two kinds of gum are produced here, called red and yellow gums; the former reſembles *ſanguis draconis*, but is perfectly ſoluble in water. It is drawn from the tree by tapping, or taken out of the veins of the wood, when dry, in which it is copiouſly diſtributed. It is a very powerful remedy in the dyſentery.

The yellow gum, as it is called, is ſtrictly reſin, not being at all ſoluble in water: it has the reſemblance of gamboge, but has not the property of ſtaining. The plant that produces it is low and ſmall, with long graſſy leaves; but the fructification of it ſhoots out in a ſingular manner from the center of the leaves, on a ſingle ſtraight ſtem, to the height of twelve or fourteen feet. Of this ſtem, which is like ſome of the reed claſs, the natives uſually make their ſpears. The reſin is generally dug up out of the ſoil under the tree, not collected from it, and may perhaps be that which Taliſman calls "gum lac of the ground."

There are a great variety of birds and animals found here, ſeveral of which, before the diſcovery of this place, were non-deſcripts.*

The natives go always uncovered, although it is obſerved they ſuffer ſometimes from the cold. Thoſe on the borders of the ſea coaſt ſubſiſt principally on fiſh. On that part of the coaſt which the Engliſh have invaded, the natives have retired, and, from accounts, are much diſtreſſed for proviſion. A kind of twine is manufactured among them, which, with their fiſhing nets, is very neatly made from the flax plant. This plant promiſes to be very valuable for the purpoſe of making cordage, and the fineſt manufactures: it grows in Norfolk iſland (a ſmall iſland N.W. of New Holland, on which the Engliſh are likewiſe making a ſettlement) in great plenty and with ſuch luxuriance as to reach the height of eight feet.

Their cutting implements are made of ſtone. Several figures of animals, of ſhields and weapons, and even of men, have been ſeen carved upon the rocks roughly, indeed, but ſufficiently well executed to indicate the object intended by them. On the top of the hills is the figure of a man, in the attitude aſſumed by them when they begin to dance, executed in a ſtill ſuperior ſtile. That the arts of imitation ſhould thus precede in any degree thoſe of neceſſity, ſeems to be an exception to the rules laid down in theory for the progreſs of invention. Though they have made no attempts towards clothing themſelves, they are by no means inſenſible of the cold, and appear very much to diſlike the rain. During a ſhower, they have been obſerved to cover

* The reader will find cuts, and a deſcription of a number of theſe animals and birds, in "The Voyage of Governor Philip to Botany Bay," publiſhed by John Stockdale, London, in 1790.

their

their heads with pieces of bark, and to ſhiver exceedingly. Their method of kindling fire is probably very laborious, as they are rarely ſeen without a fire actually made, or a piece of burning wood, which they carry with them from place to place, and even in their canoes. The perpetual fires, which in ſome countries formed a part of the national religion, had perhaps no other origin than a ſimilar inability to produce it at pleaſure, and if we ſuppoſe the original flame to have been made from lightning, the fiction of its coming down from heaven will be found to deviate very little from the truth.

In May 1787, the Britiſh government fitted out a ſquadron of eleven veſſels, with 850 convicts, under the command of Arthur Philip, Eſq. in order to form a ſettlement on this continent. The ſituation determined upon has been named Port Jackſon; ſouth lat. 32° 52′, eaſt long. from Greenwich, 159° 19′ 30″. This place is about nine miles from Botany Bay, and has a harbour capable of containing 1000 ſail of the line in perfect ſecurity. A plan of a town has been regularly laid out, and from the lateſt accounts, the proſpect was flattering to the new ſettlers.

On the firſt arrival of the Engliſh, the natives were found amicable, hoſpitable, unaccuſtomed to act with treachery, or to take the leaſt advantage, and every precaution was taken to prevent this harmony from being interrupted; but from ſome diſagreement with individuals, or what is more probable, a diſlike of the encroachments on their territories, they appear to avoid any intercourſe with their new neighbours.

The natives, like all other barbarous nations, have ſome cuſtoms peculiar to themſelves. Governor Philip, in the interviews he had with the natives, obſerved that the women in general had loſt two joints from the little finger of their left hands. He was not able to find out the occaſion of this mutilation, but noticed that it was confined to the females.*

The men are diſtinguiſhed in a different manner: their fingers are not mutilated, but moſt of them want the right front tooth in the upper jaw. They alſo have a cuſtom of perforating the cartilage that divides the noſtrils, and thruſting through it a long bone or ſtick.

The women are not treated with much tenderneſs; and are kept in great ſubordination by their huſbands. They appear to be employed chiefly in the canoes, in which women have frequently been ſeen with young children at the breaſt.

The inhabitants are not numerous, and are of a chocolate colour, middle ſtature, and very active and courageous. Their food is chiefly fiſh, birds of various kinds, yams, fruit, and the fleſh of the kanguroo, an animal reſembling the opoſſum, and peculiar to this continent. Their weapons are ſpears and lances of different kinds, which they throw with great dexterity. They alſo uſe ſhields of an oblong form, made of bark.†

* Patterſon, in his Travels in Africa, tells us that he met with a tribe of Hottentots near Orange River, all of whom had loſt the firſt joint of their little finger: the reaſon they gave for cutting it off was, that it was a cure for a particular ſickneſs to which they were ſubject when young. It would be a curious coincidence ſhould it be diſcovered that the natives of New Holland do it for any ſimilar reaſon.

† For a continuation of the Diſcoveries in New South Wales and in the South Seas, with a particular account of the natives and of the new ſettlements, the reader is referred to The Hiſtorical Journal of the Tranſactions at Port Jackſon and Norfolk Iſland, by Governor Hunter, in one volume 4to. printed for Mr. Stockdale.

THE NEW HEBRIDES.

This name was given by Captain Cook to a cluſter of iſlands, the moſt northerly of which was ſeen by Quiros, the Spaniſh navigator, in 1606, and by him named Tierra del Eſpiritu Santo. From that time, till Bougainville's voyage in 1768, and Capt. Cook's voyage in the Endeavour, in 1769, this land was ſuppoſed to be part of a great ſouthern continent, called *Terra Auſtralis incognita*. But when Capt. Cook had ſailed round New Zealand, and along the eaſtern coaſt of New Holland, this opinion was fully confuted. On his next voyage, in the Reſolution, he reſolved to explore thoſe parts accurately; and accordingly, in 1774, beſides aſcertaining the extent and ſituation of theſe iſlands, he diſcovered ſeveral in the group, which were before unknown. The New Hebrides are ſituated between the latitudes of 14° 29′ and 20° 4′ ſouth; and between 169° 41′, and 170° 21′ eaſt longitude. They conſiſt of the following iſlands, ſome of which have received names from the different European navigators, and others retain the names which they bear among the natives, viz. Tierra del Eſpiritu Santo, Mallicolla, St. Bartholomew, Iſle of Lepers, Aurora, Whitſuntide, Ambrym, Immer, Apee, Three Hills, Sandwich, Montagu, Hinchinbrook, Shepherd, Eorromanga, Irronan, Annatom, and Tanna.

Not far diſtant from the New Hebrides, and ſouth-weſtward of them, lies NEW CALEDONIA, a very large iſland, firſt diſcovered by Capt. Cook, in 1774. It is about eighty-ſeven leagues long, but its breadth is not conſiderable, nor any where exceeds ten leagues. It is inhabited by a race of ſtout, tall, well-proportioned Indians, of a ſwarthy or dark cheſnut brown. A few leagues diſtant are two ſmall iſlands, called the Iſlands of Pines and Botany Iſland.

NEW GUINEA,

Till the late diſcoveries, was thought to be the north coaſt of an extenſive continent, and to be joined to New Holland; but Capt. Cook diſcovered a ſtrait between them which runs north-eaſt, through which he ſailed. Thus it was found to be a long narrow iſland, extending north-eaſt from the ſecond degree of ſouth latitude to the twelfth, and from one hundred and thirty-one to one hundred and fifty degrees eaſt longitude; but in one part it does not appear to be above fifty miles broad. The country conſiſts of a mixture of very high hills and vallies, interſperſed with groves of cocoa nut trees, plantains, bread fruit, and moſt of the trees, ſhrubs, and plants, that are found in the other South Sea iſlands. It affords from the ſea a variety of delightful proſpects. The inhabitants make nearly the ſame appearance as the New Hollanders on the other ſide the ſtraits.

North of New Guinea is NEW BRITAIN, which is ſituated in the 4th degree of ſouth latitude, and 152° 19′ eaſt longitude from Greenwich. It was ſuppoſed to be part of an imaginary continent, till Capt. Dampier found it to be an iſland, and ſailed through a ſtrait which divides it from New Guinea. Capt. Carteret, in his voyage round the world, 1767, found that it was of much leſs extent than it was till then imagined to be, by ſailing through another ſtrait to the north, which ſeparates it from a long iſland, to which he gave the name of New Ireland. There are many high hills in New Britain, and it abounds with large and ſtately trees. To the eaſtward of New Britain, and in both the above ſtraits, are many iſlands, moſt of which are ſaid to be extremely fertile, and to abound with plantains and cocoa nut trees.*

* The reader will be much gratified in the peruſal of a new work of real merit, entitled "Diſcoveries of the French and Spaniards to the ſouth-eaſt of New Guinea," by Capt. Fleurieu, in one volume 4to. with twelve large plates, printed for Mr. Stockdale.

NEW

NEW IRELAND

Extends in length, from the north-eaſt to the ſouth-eaſt, about two hundred and ſeventy miles, but is in general very narrow. It abounds with a variety of trees and plants, and with many pigeons, parrots, rooks, and other birds. The inhabitants are black and woolly headed, like the negroes of Guinea, but have not, like them, flat noſes and thick lips. North-weſtward of New Ireland, a cluſter of iſlands was ſeen by Capt. Carteret, lying very near each other, and ſuppoſed to conſiſt of twenty or thirty in number. One of theſe, which is of a very conſiderable extent, was named NEW HANOVER; but the reſt of the cluſter received the name of the ADMIRALTY ISLANDS.

SANDWICH ISLANDS.

Beſides the voyages already mentioned, another voyage was performed by Capt. Cook and Capt. Clerke, in the Reſolution and Diſcovery, during the years 1776, 1777, 1778, and 1779, in ſearch of a north-weſt paſſage between the continents of Aſia and America. After they had arrived at the Cape of Good Hope, they proceeded from thence to New Holland. In this courſe they diſcovered two iſlands, which Capt. Cook called Prince Edward's Iſles. The largeſt, about fifteen leagues in circuit, is in lat. 46° 53′ ſouth, long. 37° 46′: the other about nine leagues in circuit, lat. 46° 40′, and long. 38° 8′ eaſt, both barren and almoſt covered with ſnow. From thence they proceeded to New Zealand, and afterwards they viſited the Friendly and the Society Iſles. In January 1777, they arrived at the Sandwich Iſles, which are twelve in number, and are ſituated between 22° 15′ and 18° 53′ N. lat. The air of theſe iſlands is in general ſalubrious, and many of the vegetable productions are the ſame with thoſe of the Society and Friendly Iſles. The inhabitants are of a middle ſize, ſtout and well made, and their complexion in general a brown olive. Owhyhee is in circumference about 300 Engliſh miles, and the number of inhabitants is computed at 150,000. The others are large and well peopled. The natives are deſcribed as of a miſd and friendly temper and carriage, and in hoſpitality to ſtrangers not exceeded by the inhabitants of the Friendly Iſles. On the 7th of February, being nearly in lat. 44° 33′ north, and long. 235° 36′ eaſt, they ſaw part of the American continent bearing north-eaſt.

Capt. Cook afterwards diſcovered King George's Sound, which is ſituated on the north-weſt coaſt of America, and is extenſive; that part of it where the ſhips under his command anchored, is in lat. 49° 36′ north, and long. 233° 28′ eaſt. The whole ſound is ſurrounded by high land, which in ſome places appears very broken and rugged, and is in general covered with wood to the very top. They found the inhabitants here rather below the middle ſize, and their complexions approaching to a copper colour. On the 12th of May, they diſcovered Sandwich Sound, in lat. 59° 54′ north. The harbour in which the ſhips anchored, appeared to be almoſt ſurrounded with high land, which was covered with ſnow; and here they were viſited by ſome of the Americans in their canoes. They afterwards proceeded to the iſland of Unalaſchka, and after their departure from thence ſtill continued to trace the coaſt. They arrived on the 20th of Auguſt, 1778, in lat. 70° 54′, long. 194° 55′, where they found themſelves almoſt ſurrounded with ice, and the farther they proceeded to the eaſtward, the cloſer the ice became compacted. They continued labouring among the ice till the 25th, when a ſtorm came on, which made it dangerous for them to proceed; and a conſultation was therefore held on board the Reſolution, as ſoon as the violence of the gale abated, when it was reſolved, that as this paſſage was impracticable for any uſeful

purpoſe

purpoſe of navigation, which was the great object of the voyage, it ſhould be proſecuted no farther; and eſpecially on account of the condition the ſhips were in, the approach of winter, and their great diſtance from any known place of refreſhment. The voyage, indeed, afforded ſufficient evidence, that no practicable paſſage exiſts between the Atlantic Pacific oceans towards the north; and this voyage alſo aſcertained the weſtern boundaries of the great continent of America. On their return it unfortunately happened, that the celebrated and able navigator Capt. Cook, was killed in an affray with the natives, by an act of ſudden reſentment and fear, rather than from a bad diſpoſition, on the iſland of Owhyhee, the largeſt of the Sandwich Iſles, on the 14th of February 1779; and his death was univerſally regretted, not only in Great Britain, but alſo in other parts of Europe, by thoſe to whom his merits and public ſervices were known. In his laſt voyage he had explored the coaſt of America, from 42° 27′ to 70° 40′ 57″ north. After the death of Capt. Cook, the command devolved on Capt. Clerke, who died at ſea on his return to the ſouthward, on the 22d day of Auguſt 1779. The two ſhips returned home by the Cape of Good Hope, and on the 5th of October 1780, anchored at the Nore.*

* For a full account of all the Diſcoveries on the Coaſt of "NEW HOLLAND," prior to the Britiſh Settlement, ſee the following work, printed for Mr. Stockdale, in one volume 8vo.

THE HISTORY OF NEW HOLLAND,

From its firſt Diſcovery in 1616, to the preſent Time; with a particular Account of its Produce and Inhabitants, and a Deſcription of Botany Bay: alſo a Liſt of the Naval, Marine, Military and Civil Eſtabliſhment. To which is prefixed, an Introductory Diſcourſe on Baniſhment. By the Right Hon. Lord Auckland. Illuſtrated with Maps.

FINIS.

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